

# The Modern Language Journal

Volume XXIII

JANUARY, 1939

Number 4

## Contents

AN ADVENTURE IN TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES, <i>R. E. Monroe</i> .....	243
SOME GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR OUTSIDE READING, <i>William R. Gaede</i> .....	251
AN IMPORTANT SOURCE OF FRENCH REALIA, <i>Albert Warner Dowling</i> .....	256
SPANISH IN THE INTENSIVE STUDY PLAN AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON, <i>William E. Wilson</i> .....	257
THE ROCKY MOUNTAIN SCHOOL OF LANGUAGES, <i>Fletcher R. Wickham</i> .....	262
A FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHER'S DREAM: PLAYLET IN ONE ACT, <i>Grace P. Lopez Diaz</i> ..	265
A GRADING SYSTEM FOR THE STIMULATION OF OUTSIDE READING, <i>Donald Fowler Brown</i> ..	270
THAT THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLUB MAY SURVIVE, <i>E. Heyse Dummer</i> .....	276
VISTAS: SOME DREAMS OF A MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER, <i>Henry Gratlan Doyle</i> .....	280
THE RISE OF THE GERMAN UNIVERSITIES, <i>Hermann Barnstorff</i> .....	282
MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN A SPECIAL STUDY PROGRAM WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE TRAINING OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS, <i>Cameron C. Gullette</i> .....	291
SPANISH MOTHER GOOSE, <i>Robert E. Luckey</i> .....	297
CORRESPONDENCE.....	299
MEETINGS OF ASSOCIATIONS.....	301
"WHAT OTHERS SAY—": FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES, <i>James B. Tharp</i> .....	301
NOTES AND NEWS.....	304
REVIEWS.....	304
ESPINOSA, <i>España</i> (N. B. Adams), 304; MAURICE, <i>The Spirit of a Language</i> (G. K. Zipf), 305; ZWIRNER, <i>Phonometrische Forschungen</i> (G. K. Zipf), 305; SAMMARTINO, MOSHER, <i>Grammaire Simple et Lectures Faciles</i> (P. P. Brant), 306; PECK, MÉRAS, <i>Spain in Europe and America</i> (W. H. Shoemaker), 306; BAGLEY, <i>An Introduction to French Literature of the Seventeenth Century</i> (Harry Kurtz), 308; GULLETTE, KEATING, <i>Learning a Modern Language</i> (C. H. Handschin), 310; COLEMAN, <i>An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching</i> (C. H. Handschin), 311; LIPSKY, REIFLER, <i>Easy German</i> (P. G. Krauss), 311; VON GRUENINGEN, <i>A Graded Reference Grammar for Students of German</i> (B. Q. Morgan), 312; PUCKETT, <i>Contemporary German Prose</i> (W. F. Kamman), 313; LENZ, NOCK, <i>Goethe's Urfaust</i> (J. A. Hess), 314; DODGE, VIERECK, <i>Lustige Stunden</i> (J. A. Hess), 314; DAVIS, ALLEN, <i>Language, Literature and Life, German Book One</i> (L. L. Meyer), 315; BRUNS, <i>Die Lese der deutschen Lyrik von Klopstock bis Rilke</i> (E. Hofacker), 315; CLOSS, <i>The Genius of the German Lyric</i> (B. Q. Morgan), 316; LECOMPTE, SUNDEEN, <i>Unified French Course</i> (I. W. Brock), 317; BOURDET, <i>Vient de Paraitre</i> (I. W. Brock), 317; FORD, HICKS, <i>An Alternative French Reader</i> (M. Z. Rowland), 317; BERNARD, <i>Visites Nocturnes</i> , 318; (B. A. Morrisette) KÄSTNER, <i>Emil und die drei Zwillinge</i> , 319; (E. H. Mueller)	
BOOKS RECEIVED.....	320

(The MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL is indexed in the *Education Index*. Contents of previous volumes of the MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL have been indexed in the *Education Index*, beginning with the inception of the *Index* in 1929.)

Published by

The National Federation of Modern Language Teachers

# The Modern Language Journal

STAFF, 1938-39

## EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

(Former Managing Editors)

E. W. BAGSTER-COLLINS, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. (1916-19).

J. P. WICKERSHAM CRAWFORD, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa. (1922-26).

ALGERNON COLEMAN, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois (1919-22).

BAYARD QUINCY MORGAN, Stanford University, California (1926-30).

CHARLES H. HOLZWARTH, West High School, Rochester, N.Y. (1930-34).

HENRY GRATAN DOYLE, The George Washington University, Washington, D.C. (1934-38).

## MANAGING EDITOR

EDWIN H. ZEYDEL, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio

## ASSISTANT TO MANAGING EDITOR

JOHN P. VON GRUENINGEN, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin

## ASSISTANT MANAGING EDITORS

(Review and Department Editors)

WILFRED A. BEARDSLEY (French), Goucher College, Baltimore, Md.

JAMES B. THARP (Methodology), Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

STERLING A. STOUDEMIRE (Spanish), University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N.C.

GRACE P. YOUNG (Bibliography), Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

JOHN A. HESS (German), Ohio University, Athens, Ohio

E. F. ENGEL (Radio), University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas.

MICHELE CANTARELLA (Italian), Smith College, Northampton, Mass.

EDWARD G. BERNARD (Films), International Cinema League, 11 W. Forty-Second St., New York, N.Y.

## BUSINESS MANAGER

FERDINAND F. DiBARTOLO, 284 Hoyt Street, Buffalo, New York

## Concerning Our Contributors

ROBERT E. MONROE, A.B., A.M. Michigan, taught at Georgetown College, Kentucky, and Transylvania College before becoming professor of Romance Languages at Ohio State University, where he supervises the elementary courses.

WILLIAM R. GAEDÉ, associate professor of German at Brooklyn College and a member of the faculty of the German School of Middlebury College, was in the Prussian *Kultusministerium* before coming to America.

ALBERT WARNER DOWLING is the author of *The Architecture of the Renaissance in France*.

WILLIAM E. WILSON has contributed previously to the *Journal*.

MISS FLETCHER R. WICKHAM, who teaches Spanish in Dallas, is the founder and national executive secretary of the Pan American Student Forum.

GRACE P. LOPEZ DIAZ studied in the United States and in Spain and has taught in San Juan, San German, and Chicago. Besides teaching Spanish and writing plays, she is also a successful painter and poet.

DONALD FOWLER BROWN studied at Wheaton College and the University of Illinois, as well as in France and Germany, and has taught French and German in Kansas and Missouri. He now teaches French and Spanish at the U. S. Naval Academy.

E. HEYSE DUMMER studied in Berlin and Munich and at Northwestern University. He has contributed to various journals.

HENRY GRATAN DOYLE is known to all readers as the former Managing Editor of our *Journal*.

HERMANN BARNSTORFF, A.M. Ohio State, Ph.D. Wisconsin, teaches German at the latter university and has just published a thesis on Gerhart Hauptmann in Jena, Germany.

CAMERON C. GULLETTE supervises the elementary courses and the correspondence-extension work and teaches the Methods classes in Romance Languages at the University of Illinois. He is a well-known author in his field.

ROBERT E. LUCKEY, A.B. Colorado State College of Education, has had three years of experience teaching Spanish and English in Colorado and New Mexico.

NOTE—Readers are reminded that the relative order of articles in the *Journal*, does not necessarily carry implications as to the comparative merits of contributions. The *Journal* is equally grateful to all its contributors, past, present, and potential, for their co-operation.

# *An Adventure in Teaching Foreign Languages*

R. E. MONROE

*The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio*

(*Author's summary.*—This article, the first of a series by members of the staff of the Department of Romance Languages of Ohio State University, attempts to present a view of present conditions necessitating a revision of methods and materials. It aims to be realistic in considering the following questions: (1) What are we teaching? (2) Whom are we teaching? (3) How are we teaching? (4) And Why? In progressive steps from the first day of the beginners' course to more advanced work in linguistics and literature, articles by W. S. Hendrix, G. B. Fitch, A. H. Schutz, and George R. Havens will follow.)

## *1931—The Indictment*

"Foreign language teaching is an anarchy both in theories and works. . . . There is no agreement among language teachers as to what to teach." This indictment is quoted from an article published seven years ago (September 1931) in *School and Society* under the caption "The Parlous State of Foreign Language Teaching."

## *1938—The Sentence*

"It is a question of relative values. Other fields are so much more important *for this purpose* that credits in foreign language are not acceptable, even as electives." The court which handed down this opinion was the Division of Higher Education and Certification of the Department of Education of the State of Ohio. The document into which this verdict was written is called *Tentative Pattern, Four-Year Curriculum for the Preparation of Elementary Teachers*, and is dated February 21, 1938.

If these "appréciations" had been written without quotation marks the writer would have been excommunicated as a heretic and a traitor; but, for a period much longer than that indicated by these dates, the attack has been going on, and such articles have appeared unchallenged. With sublime disdain of such an unacademic attitude, with quaint faith in American intelligence or divine guidance, the foreign language teacher seems too often to have taken refuge within his castle and to have pulled up the drawbridge, there to pass his time in contemplation of the beauties of scholarly abstractions until some Sainte Geneviève happens along to turn the Huns away from the gates; but the good "Sainte" has been delayed so long that the moat has dried up, and the termites have eaten the drawbridge. We used to be well protected by high walls of requirements; but, like the walls of Paris, they are disappearing never to return. Perhaps it is better so. It is up to us to make our subject interesting and vital enough to survive in twentieth-century competition.

The article of 1931 was constructive in that it was a challenge to our profession, that of 1938 is only the executioner exercising his function under a mandate of the jury. No one can blame him if he prefers to do it with his

eyes blindfolded. When called upon to produce a "*raison d'être*" in the simple unequivocal language of our contemporaries, we failed to convince our adversaries. We are "in the dog-house."

The confusion of objectives, justly criticized in the article of 1931, had been steadily growing worse during several years of misinterpretation of the well-known Coleman Report. Without reading this worthy document, many teachers at all levels said "Fine! With a reading objective we won't have to teach anything but translation." Another group, feeling certain that the teaching of languages was going to follow the do-nothing-that-is-hard pattern of the current fad in education, made all possible speed to produce language texts that would be good pot-boilers because they were easy. There was "Very, Very Easy Spanish" and "French Without Tears." The climax of this movement was probably reached in texts where the sales resistance was reduced to a minimum by printing the translation of the very, very easy text on the alternate pages. Then came "General Language Courses" in which the slight effort required in the emasculated courses in one language was further diluted to spread over several languages, depriving the student of the time in which he might have gained some knowledge of any one of them. The result was the same as that of the Scotchman whose horse died just when he had finished training him to live on a diet of three spears of hay a day.

From Scylla to Charybdis, meeting the demand for something easy, language teaching jumped to the ludicrous extreme which lost for us some of our most intelligent support. We probably owe to the Educational Psychologist the doubtful contribution of "true and false" and "multiple-choice" exercises which, at least in language learning, make for confusion.

Probably the greatest mistake made by our profession is that of underestimating the strength of the attack and the earnestness of the attackers. However invulnerable we may feel, they are shooting at our heels, and we had better examine them to see if there is possibly some spot where our dip into culture does not protect us. Certainly we shall make more progress by assuming that our critics are honest gentlemen whose training and experience have given them a certain attitude which, however difficult to understand, is still a popular point of view.

It is difficult to believe that American education is in a nose dive to a new low level. It is likewise hard to understand that the present moment can produce a real decline in interest in foreign languages. Through radio broadcasts, foreign languages in movies, rapid communication and transportation, increased demand for research, etc., the importance of modern foreign languages has been greatly enhanced. That their popularity is even growing is attested by the fact that, as this is being written, a radio French course on our campus has piled up an enrollment of 619 persons in its first week, without any special announcement having been sent out. It should



be pointed out that no "credit" or hope of financial advantage is here involved. It is just interest, perhaps cultural.

It is easier to believe that a combination of elements, falling together more or less accidentally, caused the smoke which obscures the clear vision on all sides. Is it not possible on the one hand that in positions of responsibility in our schools there is an appreciable sprinkling of individuals who came into the profession during and immediately following the World War when the supply of intellectuals did not equal the demand; or, let us say, when the stipend of the teaching profession, plus a possible preference, did not equal the pull of business? Such individuals in the profession, having risen through earnest and honest effort to responsible positions, may say "Why study languages or mathematics? Look what I have accomplished without them!" Before anyone takes exception to this last statement, let me hasten to add that it is not the purpose of this article to maintain that during the same period the training of teachers of foreign languages was superior to that of teachers in any other field. Nor have I material at hand to disprove the statement that there have been language teachers who could neither understand, speak, nor write the language they were teaching; but, before leaving the argument, I do wish to go on record with the assertion that today there is a greater number of well-prepared language teachers than ever before. It only remains for them to make some study of whom they will teach as well as of what they will teach and how they will teach it.

As I finished this paragraph I picked up a copy of the *New York Times Magazine* of October 30, 1938. My eye caught a caption—"How to Keep Education from Eating up Life." I thought that someone was "rushing in" on this trampled terrain where one seeks vainly for the footprints of angels; but it was Stephen Leacock giving us the lowdown. In the article he says:

The modern language—the fault there is not that we teach them wrongly, but we hardly succeed in teaching them at all. Ask any one who "took" freshman French. Only don't ask him in French. With a proper method we can learn twice as much in half the time.

The trouble is that our teaching of modern languages is utterly frustrated by the translation habit and translation examination. With each attempt to speak, the English word drives out the French. The essence of teaching dead languages is translation; the essence of living languages is to segregate the foreign words from our own. The only "French" most of us know consists of the words for which we never heard any English—such as "eau de vie" and "paté de fois gras."

Although slightly self-contradictory, this is an interesting point of view.

But what of the intelligent majority in school administration? There must be one, and it seems to have voted with the others to present such a united front. Almost without exception they have studied some language and the mention of it calls up memories of days of rules, conjugations, and translations, of which nothing remains. They find nothing in it that could be even distantly related to the use of foreign language as encountered in present reality. They correctly judge that their time has been wasted. If

they should visit a classroom and find either what was taught them as language or the story-of-the-three-bears material of more recent date, they would be amply justified in saying, "Other fields are so much more important, etc."; but if they were to find language instruction related to all those other fields, if they found language placed before grammar, and thought before isolated words, if they carried away a new feeling that language is a vehicle carrying thought in all fields, the majority of educators would fight with more energy for the retention of languages in the curricula of schools than they are now expending in the opposition.

The "old guard" of the teaching profession harks back to the time when those who went to high school and college were easily absorbed by the expansion of our industry. Commencement speakers and college "drummers" quoted statistics to show what dividends a college education paid. Yet thirty years ago the matter of employment played little part in student conversation. No one stopped to question the validity of the classical curriculum. Subjects and methods dating from ancestral times were sacred. One took his dose of them and believed it made a man of him. Grades and point averages were unknown. One did not need them to get a job. With the pinch of unemployment the student has become job-conscious and grade-conscious. If the curriculum is too stiff for the student, the curriculum, he thinks, is wrong. The student must make good grades. The one thing that he expects from his schooling is that it give him a job when he is through. Along with those who have the desire and ability for intellectual pursuits the college now receives a great mass of students who, having failed to land a job after high schools, still manifest the great American faith in schools as a job-getting agency by enrolling in college. Likewise the graduate schools fall heir to many who do not find employment after four years of college, or who are attracted to return by the salary-increasing possibilities of another degree.

Speaking at the general session of the annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in Chicago on April 8, 1938, Dr. Homer P. Rainey, National Director of the NYA, gives us an interesting view of our national experiment in the education of the masses. Says Mr. Rainey, "We are rapidly approaching the time when a vast majority of our youth under eighteen years of age will be enrolled in school. There is no longer an outlet in the professions and white-collar jobs for all our high school and college graduates. . . . In the first place our traditional curriculum of the classical high school is ill suited to a very large percentage of the secondary school population. The classical type of secondary school curricula which served so well as preparatory course for the intellectual professions is simply not suited to a large percentage of youths who have no genuine intellectual interest, or the capacity for abstract thinking."

Dr. Rainey points out that their recent studies reveal that as many as sixty-five to seventy per cent of all young people in our schools desire to

enter professional or semi-professional fields, but a census of job opportunities reveals that not more than ten to twelve per cent of youth can be absorbed in these occupations. Immigration laws having shut off the supply of foreign labor which used to take over the rough jobs, it requires only the simplest form of deduction to reach the conclusion that the majority of youth now receiving high school training will be forced to accept routine, operative, unskilled, or common labor jobs of the less desirable sort which constitute approximately seventy-five per cent of the job opportunities of the nation.

To the same authority we are indebted for the information that more students are now enrolled in secondary schools in the United States than in comparable schools in the rest of the world. Between the year when the writer finished high school and the present, secondary school enrollment has increased from about 700,000 to some 6,000,000 while the college attendance has increased from about 250,000 to approximately 1,000,000. Fortunately the rate of increase in college attendance has not equalled that of the high schools. However, the difference is not so great as to indicate that the problem of instruction is not essentially the same at both levels. An increase of some 800 per cent in secondary and 400 per cent at the higher level has necessarily resulted in a less intelligent student body, larger classes, and less efficiency in teaching. It is safe to say that the addition of the last half of the 800 per cent has greatly reduced the average intelligence of the group.

More important than numbers in this consideration is the home background, the cultural milieu from which the students come. They may have honest, hard-working parents who are sacrificing so that "our children will not have to work as hard as we did." Such students may not be below average in intelligence or application; but they are not thinking in terms of cultural values. Even fifteen years ago there were still many who sent their children to school "just to learn something"; but today the high school is a big caldron kettle where American culture is boiled down to the average, and the average youth is thinking of a job. Those in administrative positions know that the majority should never attempt higher education, and some of them are frank enough to say that they are now training their charges as though none of them would ever go to college.

Unfortunately such elementary information as the distinction between noun and verb, unnecessary in Manual Training or Home Economics, has not been classified as college preparatory material. When some of these same students do chance to enter language classes there can be nothing more bewildering than to begin with the presentation of grammar of a foreign language (unless it be the phonetic alphabet). Such "astounding" ignorance on the part of the student must not lead to an equally "dumb" mistake on the part of the teacher; namely, that of underestimating the student's intelligence. He may be very quick to comprehend something

that is more meaningful, or that contacts his experience. This mistake has led to the production of very easy texts which the good student must consider as a reflection upon someone's intelligence, perhaps his own. The "true and false" and "multiple-choice" tests, for which all but the good students show a marked preference, were undoubtedly a result of the same line of thought. All these indications may point not only to a changed clientele in secondary schools but also to a "namby-pambying" which doubles the difficulty of the task of teachers of the "harder" subjects among which languages are usually counted.

Because "social" studies are popular today, and offer a handle by which to grasp the student's interest, our method at Ohio State has been called a "Social Approach," but this "social interest" is only a name which indicates that we attempt to find the surest contact with the student's individual interest whatever it may be. In other words, it is an attempt to reconcile humanism with humanity. Ours is not the only effort along this line. There is a very hopeful indication in the joint meetings of the Federation of Modern Language Teachers and the National Council for the Social Studies. Speaking at such a meeting held at Atlantic City on March 1, 1938, Mr. Theodore Huebener, Assistant Director of Foreign Languages of New York City, said, "I think that language teachers are a little too modest about their subject, are prone to wait and to retreat. I see no reason for that at all. I think foreign languages inherently are a social study. . . ." ". . . For us the immediate objective is to teach the pupil how to read; the ultimate objective is to bring the pupil closer to the foreign civilization." And in another paragraph he says, "I say first and foremost you are not teachers of French, Italian, or German; you are first and foremost educators of American children. Hold that ideal up first." It is interesting to note that in this statement of Mr. Huebener social, humanistic, and cultural objectives are all one. This was a new angle of attack on the old practice of teaching every student as though he were a major in the subject. In this sin we are not alone. Our colleagues in the sciences should be brought upon the carpet for the same practice.

Dr. George W. Rightmire, retiring president of Ohio State University, once said that a state university is the thirteenth, fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth grades of the public school system. Then it should be the best cross-section of college life in America, and is quite dependent upon the secondary school for the preparation of its freshmen. This does not mean that the principles of instruction which apply to the public high school and to the state university are not applicable in private schools at comparable levels. A president of one of the large eastern universities recently gave public expression of his opinion that not all intelligent students were wealthy. What my colleagues will say in future articles of this series will apply in greater measure to more select student bodies. While the slower students seem to thrive under our present method of instruction, it

is the brilliant student who profits most from a system which attempts to individualize and vitalize instruction to the point that every student is making a linguistic effort every minute of every recitation hour.

The realistic picture of the situation, which I have tried to portray as I see it, would be a sad one indeed except for one fact. That is that the qualities of the human mind remain about the same. Without great effort it grasps the meaning of that with which it comes in frequent contact. New avenues have brought more easy general knowledge and experience to the high school boy of today than the average man of forty ever acquired thirty years ago; but this knowledge does not include English grammar. The college freshman knows far more today than he did a quarter of a century ago; but he does not know the same things. In attempting to avoid the unconscionable expense of time by contacting the mind of the student "at the top of his thinking" instead of beginning with unknown grammatical terms, we have convinced ourselves that the older approach must have been a handicap even when the student was well-grounded in English grammar. In what I have said and in what my colleagues will say we want it understood that we do not wish that a student know less grammar of the foreign language; but we expect him to know much more of it in a usable form. He discovers it and likes it.

In these pages many words have been spent to show that in our schools and colleges there are more than ever of the kind of students who could, should, and would study languages if instruction somehow contacted their intelligence. At the same time there are more students than ever who shouldn't attempt such subjects, but they are there helping determine the average sentiment of students, parents, and school executives who are too close to the trees to see the forest. With long-range field-glasses we have been sweeping the distant horizon to find those who have been to blame for the decline in the demand for foreign language teaching, while at arm's length lies an interesting experience, an attractive adventure, a challenge to "sell" our cultural wares to young Americans.

It is not only in America that "the old order changeth." I am indebted to my colleague, Dr. A. H. Schutz, for culling the following choice bits from the "Atlas de l'Enseignement en France" (p. 66) under the caption of "Langues vivantes":

Les textes que l'on proposera aux élèves seront toujours étudiés en vue de leur qualité humaine, c'est à dire avec l'idée d'y trouver un document de prix sur un esprit, sur l'état d'âme d'un groupe, d'un mouvement religieux, politique ou social . . . étudier l'allemand sera étudier l'Allemagne, apprendre l'anglais sera apprendre l'Angleterre et la civilisation britannique dans le monde. . . . On s'attachera à faire connaître le pays, à dépeindre les mœurs, les coutumes, les manières d'être, de vivre, de penser du peuple qui l'habite. Ainsi la culture générale de l'esprit par l'instrument de la langue . . . trouvera là son couronnement naturel.

This new educational set-up has dumped a new problem into the collective lap of language teachers. We have no choice but to accept the



challenge to show how our subject is connected with the rest of life, or else —. The task is to start again to build up a cultural foundation at the highest level at which we can find solid ground as a base. To maintain or raise standards by finding some adequate means of using the known to learn the unknown, to contact the students as they are today at the level of their most advanced thinking and through their most common interests—that is our job.

In seven or eight years in which we have been experimenting with the modern students in our classrooms we have found it profitable to develop prognosis tests to divide students in beginning classes according to their ability. For students who come to us after having begun the study of a language it soon became necessary to develop placement tests to classify them in terms of our own performance. These tests will receive later attention as my colleagues take up different stages of our instruction in articles that are to follow in this series. I have attempted to set the stage for them by furnishing the general background of language teaching as it is related to our task. Just where we are trying to go, and how we propose to get there I shall leave to them to explain at the respective levels which they have consented to discuss.

We particularly wish it understood that we do not claim to have the one and only guaranteed approach or a panacea for all linguistic ills. We shall do our best to describe an effort which seems to be succeeding with the students who enter our classes.

## Some Guiding Principles for Outside Reading

WILLIAM R. GAEDE

*Brooklyn College, Brooklyn, New York*

(Author's summary.—(1) An attempt to set up criteria on the best methods for outside reading; (2) a report on the practical application of these methods.)

OUTSIDE reading has a place of special importance in American methods of foreign language teaching, and deservedly so. The aims of the teaching must be definitely restricted, since, for the most part students devote only two years to the study of a language. Reading knowledge is the obvious goal under such conditions. This is the purpose for which most students study a language; and also for those who want to go further it is a useful beginning. But since a great part of these two years is devoted to pronunciation and grammar, outside reading is indispensable in order to prepare the student for the understanding of a given text.

Outside reading, however, has its own pedagogical difficulties. The technique of understanding a given text is not easy to acquire when one works without the aid of a teacher. And then there is the problem of the materials to be read. They must be easily comprehensible. But something easy to read, like a simply told fairy story, is often too far below the age level of the high school student, to say nothing of the young people who begin their study of languages in college. Finally, if the teacher assigns outside reading and treats it as entirely separate from the class work, it becomes, to a certain extent, a disturbing element in the teaching.

These and other problems of outside reading are well known to every teacher from his own experience. If we study the problem further in an attempt to discover how we can get the best possible results from this absolutely necessary part of language study, we come upon the following criteria:

1. The outside reading shall be reading in the true sense of the word; that is, reading for the sake of the content. The student must have a real desire to know what is in the book. Foremost in his mind must not be the thought, "I must read so many pages," or "I am reading in order to acquire a reading knowledge."

2. The reading should therefore be interesting to young people; it must be in accordance with their interests and suited to their age level.

3. Our educative task, however, does not allow us to be content merely with the interesting. The teacher should choose material which, in form and content, serves as more than a source of amusement. The language teacher of our time is especially confronted with the demand for *Kulturkunde*; that is, the material which the students read should help to form a complete picture of the character of the people whose language is being studied.

4. On the other hand, the extent of the difficulties must be carefully noted. The amount of reading as well as the difficulties in the language should be increased gradually and skillfully.

5. Finally, even the work which the student, stimulated by the teacher, does at home, should be drawn into the class discussions. It should be closely tied up with that which is being read in class; it should be used, wherever possible, to supplement the picture of the foreign people which emerges from the work of the class.

The contradictions and practical impossibilities inherent in these ideals are apparent. Where are the books which suit our purpose? By what methods are these aims to be realized? They cannot be realized in full, and no books in the ideal form are available. Teachers are in complete agreement about this. Such ideal demands cannot be regulations. They are set up so that we can see clearly the end our teaching has in view. An entirely satisfactory realization of this end cannot be reached in our work.

I assume this complete agreement in the following paragraphs. I shall try to give examples of attempts to approach this ideal of ours so far as our actual experience permits.

*First Step.*—All students read the same text which, if possible, is selected so as to bear a definite relation to the material read in class. In actual practice, a simple story is chosen which is available in a school edition with many notes and complete vocabulary. The fact that everyone has read the same outside reading has the advantage that the difficulties experienced in reading alone can be mutually discussed in class. Of course, the first outside reading text must have been preceded by extended practice for the class in working on a new text. The best introduction to outside reading is perhaps to have the class begin a text in the classroom and finish it at home.

If the first lengthy classroom text should happen to be *Immensee*, a short, more modern love story would be suitable to use in conjunction with it as outside reading. The differences between the two would appear in the classroom discussion of the romantic setting of Storm's story, with its characters tied more closely to family and conventions than similar characters of our time. The young student who is inclined to dismiss Elizabeth and Reinhardt as excessively bashful people can be brought to see to what extent we are all molded by the times in which we live. *Emil und die Detektive* might be followed by a Thoma's *Lausbuben* story as the first outside reading. A comparison of the youthful heroes can be made the beginning of many fruitful observations. Many different books can be read in conjunction with *Aus dem Leben eines Taugenichts*. A suitable Grimm fairy tale, e.g., *Der dumme Hans* will make clearer the enduring qualities of the poetic type which the happy "good-for-nothing" represents. A class was once very much interested in the modern variant of this type which is found in B. Frank's short story *Bigram*, as published in Roeseler's *Moderne Deutsche Erzähler* (Gateway Books). The many individual features of romanticism again become evident when the *Taugenichts* is followed by Wag-gerl's *Brot* (Gateway Books) as outside reading.

*Second Step.*—All students read different short selections about a given

theme. For this type of work it is presumed that the students will have at their disposal a number of the usual books on *Kulturkunde*. The idea is to obtain a series of reports which, taken together, will constitute a complete picture of the given topic. It is possible in this way, for example, to provide an introduction to Germany and its people. I may, according to the number of students taking part, make the individual themes more or less inclusive, or I may distribute them among groups for co-operative work. The following are some examples of such theme-series:

The most important German cities.

Trade, commerce, industry in different parts of Germany.

Legendary figures: Siegfried, Barbarossa, Rübzahl, Till Eulenspiegel, Faust, Schildebürger, Münchhausen.

Historical figures: Arminius, Barbarossa, Rudolf von Habsburg, Luther, Wallenstein, der Alte Fritz, Blücher, Bismarck.

Monuments of the past: (with pictures) Der Kölner Dom, die Wartburg, Alt-Rothenburg, die Festung Nürnberg, das Ordensschloss Marienburg, das Heidelberger Schloss, die Residenz Dresden.

Masters of music: (with records) Bach, Händel, Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, Schubert, Schumann, Mendelssohn, Wagner, Brahms.

Great wars: Thirty Years' War, Seven Years' War, 1806/9, 1813/15, 1866, 1870/71, 1914/18.<sup>1</sup>

*Third Step.*—All students read different books in a school edition with commentaries. Again we are confronted with the necessity for making each individual's reading a part of the common work of the class. Simple examples within the reach of the beginning student are stories like the *Emil-Geschichten*, stories following the classic example of Kästner's *Emil und die Detektive*—in other words, adventurous happenings from the world of young people. If *Emil und die Detektive* has been read in class, the students will be well prepared to understand texts like: Nohara, *Abenteuer in Berlin* (Crofts) Mattheus, *Robby kämpft um seine Freiheit* (Holt); Schnack, *Klick aus dem Spielzeugladen* (Holt); Mattheus, *Krümel als Detektiv* (Oxford Rapid Reading Texts); Hildenbrandt, *Fritz Freeman wird Reporter* (Prentice-Hall); Vesper, *Sam in Schnabelweide* (Crofts); Durian, *Kai aus der Kiste* (Holt); Kästner, *Emil und die drei Zwillinge* (Holt); Sapper, *Frieder; Im Thüringerwald* (Crofts); Hohnrath, *Hannelore erlebt die Grossstadt* (Crofts);

In most stories on the above list the scheme of narration is very much the same: the youthful hero finds himself in danger, behaves courageously, and is finally rescued and rewarded. The rest of the stories are near enough to this scheme to be treated together with the others.

<sup>1</sup> Historical themes, except for biographies and accounts of wars, are because of their content, too difficult for the beginner. At the higher levels there are a great number of "kulturkundliche" discoveries to be made from themes such as *disputed old and new border countries* (Switzerland, the Netherlands, Austria, Schleswig, Alsace, East Prussia, Silesia.) Of course, for such themes, one would have to look farther than the school texts.

In order to utilize this outside reading in a worth-while manner in one period, it is desirable that the teacher give the students certain definite questions at the beginning.<sup>2</sup> In this instance, for example: Who is the hero? In what danger does the hero find himself? How does he show his mettle? Who helps him? Who is the villain? How is he unmasked? What punishment does he receive? How is the hero rewarded?

Not every student will be able to answer every one of these questions from his particular story. But if a period is devoted to short oral reports in accordance with such a plan, a natural opportunity is offered for practice in speaking; it might perhaps even lead to a discussion of the literary worth of this type of writing or of the relation of original invention to imitation and similar topics.

The same principle can be applied on a higher plane. For example, as an introduction to a writer like Storm, if *Immensee* is read in class, there are available in American school editions seven other stories by this writer.<sup>3</sup> Particularly for Storm, such a procedure is very profitable. The peculiarity of his style makes it easy for the students who have read *Immensee* to read outside of class another story by Storm. And the constant reappearance of similar events and moods makes a comparison of different stories very illuminating. After such a preparation, the teacher in a few strokes can paint a picture of the author, can explain his style by his nature and his life, and thereby arouse deeper literary insight than is possible by the conventional literary surveys, which rightfully aroused such strong opposition.<sup>4</sup>

*Fourth Step.*—*Outside reading is no longer confined to school editions.* This principle of drawing outside reading into the class work can be developed

<sup>2</sup> The application of this same principle to the higher grades is explained by Lillian L. Stroebe in the article *Deutsche Privalektüre im vierten Semester, Monatshefte für deutschen Unterricht*, xxii (May 1930), 141.

<sup>3</sup> *Auf der Universität* (Holt); *Geschichten aus der Tonne* (Heath); *In St. Jürgen* (Heath, Holt); *Pole Poppenspäler* (Heath, Holt); *Psyche* (Oxford Univ. Press); *Carston Curator* (Holt); *Der Schimmelreiter* (Ginn).

<sup>4</sup> In a similar way, the theme *A Century of German Fiction* might be treated in a lively fashion on the basis of reports on the following texts available in American school editions: Eichendorff, *Aus dem Leben eines Taugenichts* (Holt); Heine, *Die Harzreise* (Allyn and Bacon, Am. Book Co., Heath, Holt); Droste-Hülshoff, *Die Judenbuche* (Oxford Univ. Press); Stifter, *Das Heidedorf* (Am. Book Co.); Ludwig, *Zwischen Himmel und Erde* (Heath), *Die Heilerthei* (Prentice-Hall); Keller, *Romeo und Julia auf dem Dorfe* (Heath, Holt), *Frau Regel Amrain und ihr Jüngster*, *Die drei gerechten Kammacher* (Oxford Univ. Press), *Kleider machen Leute*, *Das Fähnlein der 7 Aufrechten* (Heath), *Sieben Legenden* (Oxford Univ. Press); Meyer, *Das Amulett* (Am. Book Co.), *Der Heilige* (Holt), *Gustav Adolfs Page* (Heath, Holt); Storm, see note<sup>3</sup>; Raabe, *Die schwarze Galeere* (Crofts, Oxford Univ. Press), *Else von der Tanne* (Oxford Univ. Press); Fontane, *Grete Minde* (Holt), *Unterm Birnbaum* (Crofts); Ebner-Eschenbach, *Krambambuli* (Am. Book Co., Heath); Schnitzler, *Stories and Plays* (Heath); Th. Mann, *Tonio Kröger* (Crofts), *Unordnung und frühes Leid* (Prentice-Hall), *Mario und der Zauberer* (Harpers); Hesse, *Knulp* (Oxford Univ. Press); Stehr, *Der Geigenmacher* (Oxford Univ. Press); Binding, *Der Opfergang* (Prentice-Hall); Waggener, *Brot* (Norton); Hausmann, *Abel mit der Mundharmonika* (Norton).



much further, as soon as one does not need to rely entirely on available school texts. The range of possibilities in the realm of *Kulturkunde* as well as in that of literature is too great to be discussed here in any detail. One example may suffice. When a class is introduced to the peculiar narrative skill of Thomas Mann, by way of *Tonio Kröger*, the students may read short stories of his outside—short or long stories, simple or difficult ones, in accordance with their reading ability. If the class is told the content of these stories one after the other,<sup>5</sup> the teacher can easily lead the class to the realization that the writer again and again has re-created his own Tonio-experience in different guises: the sufferings and yearnings of the lonely soul, who feels himself unable to cope with the world of normal people, to which he does not belong.

#### *Final Observation*

With reference to the above observations, it should be stated that they have not been made for the purpose of presenting an adequate realization of ideal aims. They are merely an attempt to integrate outside reading with the classwork as a whole. There are, of course, many different means to this end. More important than all systematization is the enthusiasm and ingenuity of the teacher. Equipped with these qualities he will know how to find, with the aid of his students, his and their method of achieving the aim of real reading.

<sup>5</sup> The students should be encouraged to take a few notes on them in German.

## *An Important Source of French Realia*

ALBERT WARNER DOWLING

*Baltimore Polytechnic Institute, Baltimore, Maryland*

THE teacher of French will find current and back numbers of the *National Geographic Magazine* invaluable as aids both in classes and in extra-curricular clubs. For photographic illustrations, for maps, and for well-written articles on subjects of interest to the teacher and the student of the language, the culture, and the ideals of the country, for all these things no magazine perhaps offers so many possibilities for "finds." Properly used, these "finds" will serve to foster interest among adolescents in junior and senior high schools and even in higher levels wherever French is being studied.

All language teachers should have as an ever-present tool of reference the December, 1918, issue, Volume xxxiv, Number 6. It is a monograph by Dr. Grosvenor on the subject of "The Races of Europe," with a map illustrating the racial types. It should take its place on the reference shelf just as prominently as the Vander Beke Word Book and the Cheydleur Idiom List; the map should be at hand at all times for student and teacher consultation. Other numbers of the magazine, especially the ones during the latter War years, will probably be "dog-eared" if put in the hands of students. There could be no higher compliment paid to their usefulness as French realia. Because bookstores and auction rooms seldom fail to offer large stacks of back numbers to customers, the following list has been compiled by the writer. For the teacher who would care to look through lists of titles, the "Cumulative Index to the National Geographic Magazine, 1889 to 1936 Inclusive" and the supplement published yearly by the Society should be consulted. However, the list below will be a more useful one for those buying copies at random or ransacking attics and collections at home for back numbers with information pertaining to France.

*List of National Geographics containing information on French subjects.*—1900—March, June; 1909—June; 1910—September; 1913—August; 1914—September; 1915—November; 1917—March, April, May, June, July, November, December (combined); 1918—January, February, March, May, June, July, November, December; 1919—December; 1920—August; 1921—July; 1922—July; 1923—July, August, September (supplement), December; 1924—August, November; 1925—January; 1926—October; 1927—August, September; 1929—August, November; 1930—October; 1932—January, November; 1934—January, August; 1936—May, October; 1937—June, October; 1938—none (checked to August, 1938 inclusive).

## *Spanish in the Intensive Study Plan at the University of Washington*

WILLIAM E. WILSON

*University of Washington, Seattle, Washington*

(*Author's summary.*—With the threefold purpose of concentrating on one subject a quarter, allowing students to set their own pace, and developing student leadership, the plan described below was tried out at the University of Washington last year under the guidance of Dean E. H. Lauer.)

ONE of the most perplexing problems which confronts teachers of many elementary subjects, and a problem which has been discussed at length recently in educational journals, is the difficulty of adapting one's classroom technique to a large number of students of greatly varying ability. The writer frankly expresses his dissatisfaction with the system generally followed of lumping together students whose capacities range from the brilliant to bare mediocrity. Needless to say, such a procedure leaves much to be desired when one has in mind the difficulties of attempting to strike an average pace which will keep the brilliant members at least partly occupied, and will not be too fast for the intellectual nonentity.

A rather unique plan, which has as one of its aims the solution of this problem, was tried out at the University of Washington this past year in what is known as the Intensive Study Course, a division of General Studies. Under this plan, three groups of freshmen, each limited to fifty students, were enrolled to follow a prescribed course of study for an academic year. Each student, besides taking the required courses in Military Drill and Physical Education, devoted one-third of his time each quarter to freshman English, and concentrated upon only one other subject which varied from quarter to quarter. In the autumn the subject studied intensively was a language—Spanish, French, or German. During the winter a Social Science—History, Economics, or Political Science—replaced the language, giving way in the third quarter to one of the Natural Sciences—Geology, Geography,—or Mathematics. For the sake of administrative efficiency the three groups had all their classes and conferences in a building specifically reserved for them.

Each group met as a unit three times a week for a period of two and one-half hours. Some of the instructors preferred to take up only one subject a period, thus having one for English and two for the foreign language. The writer and his colleague in English, believing that a class-period of such length given over entirely to only one subject might prove to be too burdensome, allotted the first hour to English and the remaining hour and a half to Spanish.

The large group, consisting of forty-four students of whom fourteen had had previous work in Spanish, was divided into squads of six or seven members, using the high school grade averages and the number of courses

in Spanish previously studied as a basis for the division. The wisdom of this procedure, which kept students of the same intellectual level together in the squads, is apparent when the statement is made that the entire group ranged in ability from some who had maintained almost perfect averages in high school to three who had barely managed to pass with an average of D+. The squads met three times a week for a period of one hour and a half. One meeting was devoted to English and one to Spanish. The third was in charge of a student leader, and gave the members an opportunity to work out their individual difficulties and to receive help from others in the squad.

The instructors were given complete liberty as to their methods and aims. The writer, believing that the reading-knowledge method is the best approach to the study of a language, followed that method; another instructor used the direct method entirely. The grammar selected for the Spanish group was of the so-called minimum type, giving a bare outline of the essential points. This text is divided into fifteen lessons, and one lesson was covered during each of the large group meetings. About the middle of the quarter, after these fifteen lessons had been covered, two lessons a meeting were assigned for review, and additional work was done in a graded reader. For the weekly squad meetings, graded readers were used exclusively.

Since the squads were composed of students of approximately the same ability, each was allowed to set its own pace in the readers. As might be expected, the two squads of brilliant or better-than-average students were a joy to work with, covering long assignments with an accuracy that was amazing. The barely average and below-average squads, not having to compete with their more able companions, seemed more at home when not forced to flounder beyond their depth. The difference in the amount of work covered by the various squads is striking, the highest easily finishing three readers of a total of 119 pages plus the exercises, while the lowest was barely able to finish two for a total of 77 pages. A further advantage of this division according to ability was the ease of transferring students from a high to a lower squad when the occasion demanded it. Unfortunately, no provision could be made for transferring those whose linguistic aptitude merited their inclusion in a higher-ranking squad. For two students of this type discovered early in the quarter additional reading in an elementary text was given.

In order to check the progress of each squad in the acquisition of vocabulary, a test was given at the end of the third week and repeated at intervals of two weeks during the rest of the quarter. This test, based on Buchanan's list, consists of groups of three words of the same approximate range, selected at intervals of 50 words from entry 200 through 1004; groups of two words of the same range, also selected at intervals of 50 words, are given

from entry 1050 through 1800.<sup>1</sup> In the tabulation of the results given below, the score for only the four squads which had not studied Spanish previously is given. The superior and higher-than-average squads, a total of thirteen students, are combined under group A. The two lower-ranking squads, a total of seventeen students, are combined under group B. The figures given indicate the number of students in each group correctly translating each entry. From this tabulation the superiority of group A over group B both in the range and accuracy of vocabulary acquisition is clearly evident.

The results of the test proved interesting for the information disclosed regarding the range of vocabulary acquired by the class. As stated above, only recently published texts, based on Buchanan's list, were used. The authors of the grammar, which the class covered twice, state that it should give the students the ability to read at sight the first 1000 words of this list. In view of the fact that all the squads read at least three graded readers in addition, the statement seems overly optimistic, to judge from the results for test No. 4, given in the ninth week, when the students had studied Spanish the equivalent of eighteen weeks under the plan generally prevailing. It is the writer's opinion that the maximum range acquired by 50 per cent of the class does not go far beyond 700 words. Although a few words of higher range were translated correctly by the class as a whole, it will be noted that the total number of correct answers tends to decrease after entry 703. Additional investigation along this line may indicate the need of graded texts which will give a complete coverage of the first 1000 or 1500 words in Buchanan's list.

It is obvious that objections may be, and have been raised, against the plan described in this paper. The one most commonly voiced is that students intending to continue their language study are handicapped by having to wait too long—a period of nine months—before being able to resume it. This objection seems valid. Another one frequently heard is that a student can accomplish more in two quarters of regular procedure than in one quarter of concentrated study. Since this objection is based chiefly on conjecture or prejudice, the writer is inclined to minimize it until data are forthcoming to support it. There is also the likelihood that this method will be more expensive than the one regularly followed. This is an administrative matter, however, and if it can be demonstrated that the system of concentrated study results in greater accomplishment by the superior student, such an objection should receive scant attention. All in all, the writer, satisfied with the results achieved by his group of students, is convinced that the plan has merit, and with certain minor changes, can do much to enable students to develop at a pace in keeping with their intellectual level.

<sup>1</sup> In this test, obvious cognates are omitted. The writer apologizes for the error responsible for the inclusion of words 312, 313, 314, instead of 300, 301, 302.



TABLE OF THE SCORE OF A VOCABULARY TEST GIVEN TO STUDENTS DIVIDED INTO  
TWO GROUPS ACCORDING TO THEIR HIGH SCHOOL GRADE AVERAGES,  
AND REPEATED AT INTERVALS OF TWO WEEKS

Word	Order in Buchanan's Word Book	Test No. 1		Test No. 2		Test No. 3		Test No. 4	
		A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
voz	200	6	3	13	17	13	16	13	17
rey	201	12	14	13	16	13	17	13	17
ectar	202	0	0	1	3	11	10	12	14
tratar	250	3	1	11	7	11	9	12	14
largo	251	12	17	11	17	13	17	13	17
comer	252	13	17	13	17	13	17	13	17
boca	312	7	5	13	11	13	15	13	16
callar	313	0	0	1	1	2	3	8	4
principio	314	0	0	11	2	9	4	12	4
enviar	350	0	0	8	3	12	6	12	12
bastar	351	0	1	9	5	10	8	11	13
placer	352	0	0	7	1	6	1	7	2
pecho	400	0	0	2	1	8	5	10	8
cerrar	401	5	4	7	4	12	3	11	7
huir	402	0	0	3	2	12	6	13	15
piedra	449	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	2
merecer	450	0	0	0	0	1	0	10	3
frío	451	13	17	13	17	13	17	13	17
enemigo	500	12	11	12	13	13	15	13	16
fácil	501	13	17	13	17	13	17	13	17
vecino	503	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	3
alegría	553	2	7	10	8	12	9	13	9
peligro	554	0	0	0	0	1	0	8	5
consejo	556	2	2	2	1	9	3	11	6
merced	602	2	0	2	0	9	3	10	7
vuelta	603	0	0	8	4	12	4	12	8
hermosura	605	5	0	7	1	8	4	11	9
mitad	650	0	0	0	0	7	2	9	10
pertenecer	653	2	2	7	6	7	6	12	5
fuelle	655	0	0	3	3	7	7	10	8
poseer	701	3	5	4	7	9	7	8	10
golpe	702	0	0	10	2	13	13	13	16
mirada	703	2	4	2	1	4	4	8	5
arrastrar	748	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
alejar	749	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
fijo	754	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1
huevo	797	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	3
cama	800	11	16	12	17	13	17	13	17
reina	803	13	17	13	17	13	17	13	17
torre	851	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
encargar	853	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
caber	855	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
izquierdo	898	0	0	8	7	10	10	11	10
traje	900	6	0	9	3	9	3	9	5

Word	Order in Buchanan's Word Book	Test No. 1		Test No. 2		Test No. 3		Test No. 4	
		A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
pecado	902	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
deber	951	3	1	12	7	13	11	12	12
jardín	952	7	7	13	17	13	17	13	17
polvo	953	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
dichoso	1000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
fingir	1001	0	0	0	0	0	1	13	7
cabello	1004	0	0	6	1	8	3	11	4
seno	1050	0	0	0	0	3	0	2	0
tesoro	1051	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
imprimir	1101	1	0	2	2	3	1	3	2
mudar	1102	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	1
huerta	1148	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
leve	1149	2	0	4	1	3	1	5	0
beso	1200	4	2	11	5	13	10	13	12
tonto	1202	0	0	2	1	10	6	9	9
medir	1248	0	0	9	1	9	2	9	2
perseguir	1249	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
alumbrar	1299	1	0	1	0	3	0	4	5
convidar	1301	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	2
hundir	1350	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
ladrón	1352	0	0	1	0	7	1	13	17
ceñir	1399	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
cercano	1400	1	0	2	1	2	1	6	4
sacerdote	1450	2	0	3	0	9	6	12	8
temprano	1451	3	0	10	1	12	9	12	6
favorecer	1500	11	12	12	11	8	13	9	13
gato	1501	0	0	0	0	3	2	8	4
nido	1551	0	0	0	0	3	0	3	0
ademán	1552	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
techo	1599	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
desempeñar	1601	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
doler	1652	1	0	2	1	5	1	5	1
hielo	1655	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
ventaja	1700	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
desvanecer	1701	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
cuerda	1750	0	0	2	0	2	1	3	2
empleo	1752	1	2	5	3	2	4	2	4
giro	1799	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
pérdida	1800	2	0	3	0	9	6	12	8

## *The Rocky Mountain School of Languages*

FLETCHER R. WICKHAM

*Sunset High School, Dallas, Texas*

THE Rocky Mountain School of Languages was organized by Professor of Spanish J. M. Hernández of the University of Oklahoma to meet special language needs of Teachers of Languages, and students specializing in the languages. The School is to be considered as serving the same purpose in its line as a School of Music, a School of Art, or a School of Medicine. The courses offered will appeal to advanced undergraduate students, graduate students working for the master's degree, and adults wishing to broaden their cultural background.

The affiliation of the Rocky Mountain School of Languages with Colorado College, the oldest institution of higher learning in the State of Colorado, and a member of the American Association of Colleges and Universities, insures the student credit for his work, and the A.B. and A.M. degrees on completing those prescribed courses. The School of Languages uses the regular college buildings of Colorado College and has the use of the library.

Courses are offered to meet the needs of the students, and will be offered in sequence so the student working for a degree may follow a definite course of study. In 1938, beginning, intermediate, and advanced courses were offered in Spanish, German, Italian, French, Latin; also courses in Composition and Diction, and Conversation.

Additional courses for next year will include: a seminar in Language Teaching Methods, a practical course which will fulfill requirements in Education for teachers in the larger city systems; courses in Spanish-American Literature, including Mexican and Central American Literature; Spanish poetry and a Beginning Course in Portuguese. The classical studies and courses in the English Language are included in the curricula and are offered as the demand arises.

As soon as the attendance warrants, separate dormitories will be used for the School of Languages, with its separate dining-room. During the summer of 1938, the women students lived in Bemis Hall, and the men in Tichnor Hall, with all eating in Bemis Hall. Board and room is obtained for ten dollars a week.

Although all students in the Rocky Mountain School of Languages eat in the same dining-room with the other students enrolled in the summer school, students are seated in language groups according to their knowledge of the language studied, with a native instructor to plan and direct the conversation.

To encourage the student to use further the language, a social hour is held three times a week from 7:30 to 8:30 p.m. At this hour the groups are separated in the same manner as for the conversation at the language

tables. The type of work and methods used are quite varied, planned to meet the needs of the group. At the close of this hour, all groups meet together for an half-hour of entertainment, consisting mainly of learning songs, playing games, and presenting special musical numbers.

Each Friday night a more formal program is presented to which are invited the members of the Summer School of Colorado College and the general public. The programs consist of lectures, dance recitals, plays, and foreign films. The students also have the privilege of attending recitals and lectures by the Schools of Fine Arts and Music of Colorado College. All cooperate by booking the special features on different nights.

Classes are held from Monday through Friday, from 8 to 1 p.m. The student has his week-ends free for taking the excursions out from Colorado Springs and Manitou. Students are urged to drive their own cars to Colorado; many pleasant group excursions are made by owners taking other students. The trips are more enjoyable and less expensive in the "share the expense" method used.

The student is asked to bring along his tennis racquet, guitar, accordion, or any game or instrument that will add to his enjoyment, and that of the fellow-students. Ample time can be found for this much-needed recreation for the overworked classroom teacher. The classroom work is very intensive and serious work is required, but there is time for relaxation in the various games.

Interests are quite broad at Colorado College. Besides the Academic Summer School in which students in the Rocky Mountain School of Languages may enroll in any subject desired, the Fine Arts Center affiliated with Colorado College offers many attractive courses, and the School of Fine Arts of Colorado College permits the student to study voice and languages. During the month of July an interesting group come to the campus, the Cowles Commission for Research in Economics; all students are welcome to attend the sessions of the Conference without cost. Nationally and internationally known economists and statisticians are brought to the Conference.

Tuition for the six weeks for a full course is \$50; for the three weeks term, \$25. Board and room is \$60 for the full term of six weeks. A deposit of \$10 is required for reserving a room in the residence halls. This deposit is credited to the student's account. Adjustments will be made in housing and dining room accommodations at the close of the first term of six weeks. Colorado College will place at the service of the School whatever facilities may be available for the short term of three weeks. All reservations should be made not later than May 15, 1939. First Term June 19 to July 28, 1939—Second Term July 31 to Aug. 18, 1939.

The Rocky Mountain School of Languages has an ideal location. Colorado Springs is more than six thousand feet in altitude; majestic snow-capped Pikes Peak overlooks the city, and the ever-changing lights

which play on the mountains surrounding this beautiful little modern city of 36,000 inhabitants, leaves the student in a veritable spot of beauty in which to study and rest.

Any language teacher who attends one session of the Rocky Mountain School of Languages will find he has spent a most profitable summer, he will return to his classroom with a refreshed mind and body, a new aspect, many congenial friendships formed, with memories that will enrich his life, and with a desire to return again and again.



# *A Foreign-Language Teacher's Dream: Playlet in One Act*

GRACE P. LOPEZ DIAZ

*Crane Technical High School, Chicago, Illinois*

(*Author's explanation.*—In this playlet I have endeavored to bring out the strongest justifications for the study of modern foreign languages. I hoped to show that we should study languages with a vim; that we should be aware that languages are a necessity in enabling us to compete with modern world situations.)

## CHARACTERS

DON QUIJOTE—with ROCINANTE (a hobby horse labeled "ROCINANTE").  
SANCHO PANZA—with donkey (a stick with donkey head).  
STUDENT OF FRENCH—wearing hatband with word "FRENCH."  
STUDENT OF ITALIAN—wearing hatband with word "ITALIAN."  
STUDENT OF GERMAN—wearing hatband with word "GERMAN."  
FIRST STUDENT OF SPANISH—wearing hatband with word "SPANISH."  
SECOND STUDENT OF SPANISH—wearing hatband with word "SPANISH."  
THIRD STUDENT OF SPANISH—wearing hatband with word "SPANISH."  
LATIN CORPSE—boy in long black robe carried in coffin box labeled "LATIN-GREEK."  
BUST OF CAESAR—boy posed to resemble marble bust back of narrow bookcase marked "CAESAR."  
GREEK STATUE—boy draped and made up to resemble Greek statue.  
SOUTH AMERICAN STUDENT—have any Latin-American play this part.  
PALL BEARERS (SIX)—dressed in black—to carry LATIN CORPSE.  
FOUR OR FIVE BOYS with banners, labeled "GUTENBERG," "MARCONI," "PASTEUR," etc.  
ANOTHER BOY—pose character to represent Roman LAW COURT SCENE and have large word "LAW" in view.

## SETTING

The whole playlet may be given in front of Stage Curtain. DON QUIJOTE should carry long lance and shield; his dress should represent suit of armor. He should look tall and thin. SANCHO should look short and fat, with a wide brimmed hat rolled back from the face.

Have large outline map of North and South America, with word "ENGLISH" stretching from Alaska to Mexican border; and word "SPANISH" from there on to Southern tip of South America. Put cross-hatched lines over Brazil to indicate related language.

When characters are all on stage they should be arranged from left to right: Rollicking Students with banners—LAW COURT SCENE—DON QUIJOTE—SANCHO—BUST OF CAESAR—GREEK STATUE—COFFIN BOX and PALL BEARERS.

## SCENE:

Enter DON QUIJOTE and SANCHO PANZA at right; they look at the strange things about them, and finally spy a group of students who enter at left of stage singing (any popular song). DON QUIJOTE and SANCHO PANZA speak together.

DON QUIJOTE: What strange sights these? Where are we Sancho? I must be dreaming . . . But, hush! Above all I must be gallant to these rollicking youth. (*Doffs his hat and struts nobly.*)

SANCHO: None can equal your elegance of manner, Don Quijote. You

are the personification of the most *excelentisima galantaria* yet attained since knighthood was in flower. (*Bows repeatedly.*)

STUDENTS: (*All shouting*) Ay! Oh! Don Quijote and Sancho Panza!

FRENCH STUDENT: They've come up from the past. Why I read a translation in French of these two men.

ITALIAN STUDENT: And I read a story, a translation of Don Quijote in Italian.

GERMAN STUDENT: And I too! I read a translation of it in German.

FIRST SPANISH STUDENT: Hail to you all! We have something in common. Indeed! Since you have read the greatest achievement in Spanish literature I wish to tell you that I too, have read many great classics which were written in your chosen languages, but come, we must do honor to these two noble gentlemen who approach us from the remote past. (*They move forward to greet Don Quijote who approaches them.*)

DON QUIJOTE: Greetings, juvenes! (*Makes a very reverent sweeping bow. Flourishes his plumed hat.*) Students from Salamanca, I take it.

STUDENTS ALL: Sir! Students, yes—but from Crane Tech High School Chicago.

DON QUIJOTE: Chicago? What strange place is this, and what means a tech high school?

SECOND SPANISH STUDENT: Ay, most honored guest. We must explain that we are of the New World—Chicago is a great city—it bears an Indian name which means "ONION GARDEN"!

DON QUIJOTE: What? And we are in the New World and walking in the midst of this great Onion Garden? And what work do the tech students do in this great Onion Garden?

SECOND SPANISH STUDENT: Yes, we are in the midst of the onion garden. Today, Don Quijote, in the new world we hurry so that we abbreviate many words—tech is the abbreviated form of the word "Technical." Technical students learn the applied science of all sorts of mechanics. (*Points to the audience.*) There! Don Quijote, you may behold a multitude of technical students who plan to rebuild the world and set the universe in motion so perfectly attuned that there can be no wrong, no faltering, no delay, no mistakes.

DON QUIJOTE: Ay! This is what I have always sought, a perfect world.

FIRST SPANISH STUDENT: But these my companions, gentlemen (*pointing out his rollicking companions*) these are students of foreign languages.

DON QUIJOTE AND SANCHO PANZA: Greetings, juvenes!

DON QUIJOTE: (*Addressing the group of students.*) Naturally, you would be an important group in a technical school, for in order to keep abreast in the applied science of mechanics, you would need to study the writings of great scientists in all of these tongues. But come, tell me; who studies Latin and Greek here? (*Confusion of an approaching group who come in at right of stage carrying a coffin box, labeled Latin and Greek.*)

SANCHO: (*Shaking his head, sorrowfully.*) This is Latin and Greek. They are dead—dead languages. (*The corpse suddenly rises up.*)

THE LATIN CORPSE: (*Rises quickly and speaks in defense and with vigor. Meanwhile the spotlight is centered upon the Bust of Caesar, the Law Court Scene, and a picture of some engineering feat such as that at Segovia.*) Sir! I object—I am not dead. They speak of me as dead and they carry me as dead, but I have to remind the world every day that I am living in all of the Romance languages which are spoken today. From the days of Great Caesar and on, applied science of all kinds had its greatest period of blossoming and I am today the language of the technical vocabulary in all sciences, and most especially in medicine, in law, and in engineering.

BUST OF CAESAR: (*Speaks firmly, but without gesture.*) Latin will never die. The people who spoke Latin achieved some of the greatest accomplishments ever attained by mankind, and these achievements are so interwoven with the laws and customs of today that Latin will live forever.

A GREEK STATUE: All that has been said of Latin can also be said of Greek. The Golden Age of Greek culture was about 500 years before Christ. We have now 1938 (or 1939, etc.—as the case may be\*) years since the birth of Christ, yet in all these years, no art has been produced which can surpass these sculptured works of the Greek World of 500 B.C.

DON QUIJOTE: Wonderful! Marvelous! We inherited the achievements of these great people, and the very words with which we speak reveal the debt which we owe to them. We should be inspired to build as they built, and to recall the great commandment "*Honor thy father and thy mother.*" (*Turns towards the Bust, the Statue, and Corpse.*) We agree, you are not dead, nor will you ever die. We shall study you more and more, and with the aim of learning what inspired your people to achieve such great wonders. We should become imbued with a spark of your great culture, both that of the Latin and of the Greek. But how, my friend of the beloved Spanish language, why have you chosen to study Spanish?

THIRD SPANISH STUDENT: Why am I studying Spanish? Sir! I am completely Pan-American minded. I wish to know well the two great languages of the New World, English and Spanish (*gestures toward the map*). It took my ancestors a long time to get to the New World. I wish to become a part of this New World where people plan to live by the fruits of industry and where a man can achieve success if he uses his mind and his energy in the right way. I wish to attain some of the good things which life has to offer, and I believe the study of Spanish helps to open the way. The road to trade and commerce is over the *via española*. (*Gestures toward the map again.*)

SOUTH AMERICAN STUDENT: Bueno, señorito, Viva España! y los países españoles!

SANCHO: Marvelous! Wonderful! (*looking all about*). How wonderful

\* Change this number to suit the date of the performance.

this New World is; but tell me who first learned about this New World? Tell me some news! Wonderful! Marvelous! Tell me something!

FIRST SPANISH STUDENT: Sir! Just 444 years ago last October\* (or 445 etc. as the case may be), Christopher Columbus, the great navigator opened up the pathway to these great continents.

SANCHO: But who are these people who speak English?

SECOND SPANISH STUDENT: Of course, Sir, when Spain was the greatest nation in the world, England was not so well known, but you may not have heard, because news traveled slowly in your day, that in 1588 the English people defeated the Great Spanish Armada (the word "Armada" means "Armed Forces") and these English have settled all through the northern part of the NEW WORLD. Why notice, we all speak English here, and had you not come upon us here, in the Onion Garden, you would not have spoken English so quickly. There is something about this Onion Garden that causes one to absorb English rapidly and at the same time almost causes us to forget that the great chief of the celebrated Onion patch ever lived here—Big Chief—Chicago!

SANCHO: Could I see the Big Chief? Is he here today? (*Addressing the French student.*)

FRENCH STUDENT: No, my dear Sancho; the great French explorers were the only ones who knew him. They came to this locality in 1669.

DON QUIJOTE: I judge, sir, that it is your interest in these people which has caused you to study the French language. Am I right? Why do you study French?

FRENCH STUDENT: Sir, my dear Don Quijote, of course, I am interested in them, but there is something more vital. I wish to see a successful Peace Conference, before the human race is annihilated, and I know it will never be done unless we learn to understand one another. For that reason I am for *all* of the living languages (*all of the students cheer this speech*).

DON QUIJOTE: (*To German Student who has moved forward.*) I do not quite understand what he means by a Peace Conference. Isn't the New World at peace?

THE GERMAN STUDENT: The New World is taking great steps to set the rest of the world at peace. My dear Sir, you should know that almost all of the countries of Europe and some of the New World allied themselves against Germany in what was known as the great World War. The Great World War came to an abrupt end on the very year and day that I was born.† I feel that the troubles of this world were placed upon my shoulders when I was born. I know how to sympathize with Old Atlas. I feel somewhat like he did when the ancient Greeks rested the world upon his

\* Change this number to suit the date of the performance.

† This expression can later be changed to say "When my older brother was born," and "We feel that the troubles of this world were placed upon our shoulders when we were born."

shoulders. I'm studying German hoping to find out what to do about it since I've been given this load to carry.

DON QUIJOTE: (*To the Italian Student.*) Why can't you do something to help your brother carry that weight, my lad?

ITALIAN STUDENT: I'm doing something, sir. I'm studying Italian. I, too, hope to help at the Great Peace Conference, and I want to help carry the load of which he speaks (*designating the German student*), and I hope to go "flying down to Rio" and back to the Onion Garden along the Great Lake Front and to the Great technical *field* for which I am preparing myself.

DON QUIJOTE: But tell me, juvenes! How long do you study these languages, in order to accomplish so much with them?

ALL STUDENTS IN UNISON: Not half long enough, sir! Rah! Rah! Rah!

SANCHO: (*Smothering a hearty laugh and speaking to Don Quijote.*) Why what do they mean? They say, sir, that it is RAW!

DON QUIJOTE: That is another one of those abbreviated forms which they use here in the Onion Patch. Come, Rocinante, let us explore this new world. Hail, lads, when shall we see you all again?

ALL STUDENTS: At the next Peace Conference!

FRENCH STUDENT: (*Bowing to Don Quijote*) Come, friend, and bring your elegant manners.

ITALIAN STUDENT (*to Don Quijote*): Come, sir, and bring your compass which points to good will in all directions.

GERMAN STUDENT (*to Don Quijote*): Come early, sir, and help us select firm ground on which to stand.

LATIN CORPSE: Stand guard, sir, at that Great Conference, and point out to all nations that the way to Permanent Peace is through Good Government (*pointing toward the Law Court Scene*).

SPANISH STUDENT: (*Shaking hands and bowing politely.*) Above all, Don Quijote, don't forget to bring Rocinante—there is nothing like a good hobby—well ridden!

SANCHO: That's right, boys—ride your language hobbies well, before you come to the next Peace Conference and then I'll offer my donkey for sale cheap, for what will be the use of having donkeys then, anyway? When men are able to understand one another well, then donkeys will be out of date, at Peace Conferences.

DON QUIJOTE: Adios, juvenes!

FRENCH STUDENT: Au revoir.

GERMAN STUDENT: Auf Wiedersehen.

ITALIAN STUDENT: Addio.

SPANISH STUDENT: Adios.



# *A Grading System for the Stimulation of Outside Reading*

DONALD FOWLER BROWN

*United States Naval Academy, Annapolis, Maryland*

(*Author's summary.*—A method is offered whereby definite rewards, in the form of grades, may be used to stimulate student participation in outside reading without unbalancing one's grade curve for the class; also a novel method for checking and accrediting supplementary reading—a system which has much to recommend it besides being easy for the teacher.)

**I**N the author's opinion it is better to stimulate outside reading by a system of rewards rather than by one of penalties. The present article concerns itself with some experiments which seem to bear out this theory.

The second-year class, which I was to teach the fall of my arrival at Missouri Valley College, was composed mainly of those who had had their elementary work at the same institution: that is six semester hours of French grammar with no outside reading whatever, and only some fifteen pages of classroom reading. I started them off on some first-year readers, working in some elementary phonetics—also a new element in their experience—and some grammar review, during the first nine weeks. The second nine weeks I inaugurated a program of outside reading by placing some temptingly easy texts on the reserve shelf in the library and offering rich rewards for reading them. The student who completed three books of 120 pages (or the equivalent) in the eight weeks before final examinations should have an A averaged in as one quarter of his semester grade, and if he finished only two books (or 240 pages) he should have a B, or a C for one book (or 120 pages). I suggested that they start out with some graded editions of *Sans Famille* and *L'Abbé Constantin*<sup>1</sup> and go on from there. The only penalty for non-participants was to be a D averaged in as one quarter of their final grade. The results were amazing: 79 per cent of the class participated and an average of 221 pages were read per student during those eight weeks. The whole grade curve was raised almost half a point, i.e. from 2.66 (C—) which it would have been without the outside reading to 3.10 (C) with the reading averaged in.

Over-encouraged by this good showing, I startled my students the second semester by announcing a program of outside reading in which the number of pages required was almost doubled (see tabulation of results, page 272) and to which severe penalties were attached for non-participation. Whereas previously they had read 360 pages (or 45 pages per week for eight weeks) for an A, now they must read 560 pages (or 70 per week for the first eight weeks) and the other grades in like proportion. Outside reading

<sup>1</sup> Malot: *Sans Famille*, edited by Meade, Cochran, and Eddy (Heath—Chicago Language Series).

Halévy: *L'Abbé Constantin*, edited by Pollard, Cochran, and Eddy (Heath—Chicago Language Series).

grades were to count one third of their first nine weeks' grade and if they had not completed the minimum of 120 pages (or 15 per week for eight weeks) for a D, they were to have an F or failing grade averaged in on a one third basis as a penalty. This drastic policy resulted in only a very slight increase in the number of pages read per student and the percentage of students participating actually decreased 10 per cent. My grade curve, instead of being raised .44 as before, was now lowered .63 by the outside reading program. (See table page 272).

Dismayed by this reversal, I determined to return to a policy of reward rather than threat. I lowered the reading rate for an A from 70 to 60 pages per week, B descended from 50 to 45, and C remained at 30 pages per week. There would be no D's or F's given in outside reading and the only threat held over those who did not participate was that no person should receive A as a final grade who did not do A outside reading, nor B without an equivalent mark in reading. The reward stimulus at the same time was increased because those who did supplementary reading were now to have it count one-half of their second nine-weeks grade instead of one-third as formerly. The result this time was that the number of participants fell off another 10 per cent! Nevertheless, the number of pages read per student rose from 231 to 243, which shows that the better students, at least, were interested in the rewards offered. A reason for this unexpected drop to 59 per cent participation is probably to be found in the fact that by this time I was having them do a Zola novel in class at the rate of some twenty to thirty pages per day's recitation! . . . Although the effect of the reading program this last nine weeks was to raise my grade curve for the quarter .20, nevertheless the net result of the second semester of 1936-37 was negative .14. This minus result clearly shows the failure of a policy of penalties as a means of stimulating supplementary reading.

The following school year I profited by experience and was more successful. My students were now my own products and most of them had already been induced to read *Sans Famille* and *L'Abbé Constantin* during the second semester of their first year. Consequently, they had to start out on somewhat harder material when I initiated the second year's supplementary reading program during the second nine weeks of the term. As a result, I only aroused a participation of 59 per cent. However, the second semester saw an increase to 85 per cent the first, and 82 per cent the second, nine weeks. Definite indications of the success of the program are to be found in that the grade curve was consistently *raised* by the supplementary reading all through the year, and also in the fact that the number of pages read per student increased from 474 during the second semester of 1936-37 to 668 during the same period of 1937-38.

Of course, I am cognizant that the quarter and semester grades are obtained by averaging a constant with a variable: the outside reading grade always represents a given number of pages read, whereas the classroom

	Averages without outside reading	Averages with outside reading	Net effect of outside reading on grades	Relative importance given to outside reading in grading	Pages read per student	Degree of student participation in outside reading	Scoring rate in pages per week	Penalty for not participating
1936-37								
1st semester	2.66 <sup>3</sup>	3.10	+.44	25%	221	79%	A 45 B 30 C 15	D = 25% of grade
3rd quarter <sup>1</sup>	3.57	2.95	-.63	33 $\frac{1}{3}$ %	231	69%	A 70 B 50 C 30 D 15	F = 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ % of grade
4th quarter	3.21	3.41	+.20	50%	243	59%	A 60 B 45 C 30	No A or B given without A or B outside reading
2nd semester	3.20	3.06	-.14	27.7% <sup>2</sup>	474	64%		
1937-38								
2nd quarter	2.62	2.92	+.30	50%	165	59%	A 45 B 30 C 20	No A or B final grade without A or B outside reading. D is highest quarter grade possible to non-participants
1st semester	2.56	2.66	+.10	16 $\frac{1}{3}$ %	165	59%		
3rd quarter	3.33	3.49	+.16	50%	327	85%	A 60 B 45 C 30	No A or B quarter grade without A or B outside reading. D is highest quarter grade possible to non-participants
4th quarter	2.74	3.41	+.67	50%	341	82%	A 60 B 45 C 30	Do.
2nd semester	3.07	3.34	+.27	33 $\frac{1}{3}$ %	668	83.5%		

<sup>1</sup> A "quarter" here means nine weeks' work or  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a semester. Outside reading was figured on an eight weeks' basis as the last week is for examinations.

<sup>2</sup> Averages are derived by assigning numerical values to the common letter grades, as follows: A 4-5; B 3.5-4.4; C 2.5-3.4; D 1.5-2.4; F 1-1.4.

<sup>3</sup> Scores are based on the average of the first quarter grade; (2) The first quarter grade; (3) The second quarter grade; (4) The final examination.

<sup>4</sup> This is the average of the outside reading scores for the first quarter, second quarter, and final examination.

grades are the result of factors varying from the number of tests on irregular verbs given *in* class to the number of dances, plays or athletic contests given *outside* of class. A glance at the first column of the accompanying table (page 272) reveals that my classroom grades (without outside reading) varied from a high of 3.57 (B-) in the third quarter of 1936-37 to a low of 2.56 (C-) for the first semester of 1937-38. The main significance of the grade averages lies in the *difference*, whether plus or minus, between the unaffected classroom averages and those which include the supplementary reading. The lower one keeps the general classroom average, the more it can be raised by outside reading and the greater is the stimulus to the student to engage in the program. My system works best when the average classroom grade is around a C-; to teachers who habitually grade higher two courses are open: (1) they can increase the rewards offered for outside reading, or (2) they can be more strict than formerly in their classroom requirements, thus lowering the class average and increasing the differential that the student may obtain by engaging in supplementary reading. Of the two, the latter method is to be recommended as it is likely to result in better work *in* class as well as outside. Any system will work in which the student can plainly see the reward which he has earned for his efforts in outside reading.

There remains the question of how I found time to check up on all those pages of supplementary work (20,362 pages read during the second semester of 1937-38 alone). Written reports, especially if handed in weekly, would have required a great deal of time to check, and to the teacher in a small college with his weekly load often running as high as eighteen or twenty-one hours, time is a most important item for consideration. But it was all handled by means of oral reports made by the student at the end of each book that he finished. With six or eight skilful questions placed at random within a familiar plot, a teacher can quickly determine whether or not the student has gathered a sufficiently coherent impression of the story to be given credit thereon. I let the students choose anything from the four shelves of novels and two of plays which the library afforded and if it happened that I had not read the book, I merely let the student tell me the story from start to finish. Generally, I do not believe he realized I had not read it. The next time a student reported on the book, I could ask several intelligent questions about it and check his story with that of the previous reviewer. No attempt was made to evaluate the students' answers on an objective basis.

Of course, the teacher should have read a majority of the books on the shelves, and in questioning the students he should bear in mind several guiding principles: (1) he should not ask questions which are so obvious that the student may obtain all necessary information easily from some other person who has read the book; (2) his questions should not be too detailed as this may slow up the student's reading rate and thus defeat the

Outside reading was figured on eight weeks' basis as follows: A 4.5-5; B 3.5-4.4; C 2.5-3.4; D 1.5-2.4; F 1-1.4.

1

A "quarter" here means nine weeks' work or  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a semester.

2

Averages are derived by assigning numerical values to the letter grades as follows: A 4.5-5; B 3.5-4.4; C 2.5-3.4; D 1.5-2.4; F 1-1.4.

3

Averages are the result of averaging the grades of the first quarter grade; (2) The second quarter grade; (3) The final examination.

4

Averages are the result of averaging the grades of the first quarter grade; (2) The second quarter grade; (3) The final examination.

5

Averages are the result of averaging the grades of the first quarter grade; (2) The second quarter grade; (3) The final examination.

6

Averages are the result of averaging the grades of the first quarter grade; (2) The second quarter grade; (3) The final examination.

7

Averages are the result of averaging the grades of the first quarter grade; (2) The second quarter grade; (3) The final examination.

8

Averages are the result of averaging the grades of the first quarter grade; (2) The second quarter grade; (3) The final examination.

9

Averages are the result of averaging the grades of the first quarter grade; (2) The second quarter grade; (3) The final examination.

10

Averages are the result of averaging the grades of the first quarter grade; (2) The second quarter grade; (3) The final examination.

purpose of the program; (3) he should ask questions only on selected parts of the plot, thus saving much time; (4) there should be a few questions on those minor incidents or characters which would be vividly recalled by one who had read the book and not so vividly by one who had merely heard a summary. I shall endeavor to illustrate these points by representative questions on Malot's *Sans Famille*,<sup>1</sup> a text which no doubt is familiar to every teacher of French:

1. Questions which are too *obvious*:

1. Who was Remi?
2. Who was Remi's mother?
3. How did Remi get to take a boat trip?
4. Why did Remi travel with an Italian?
5. What did Vitalis do for a living?

2. Questions that are too *detailed*:

1. What was the name of the first town René visited with Vitalis?
2. Exactly how much did the boys pay for the cow?
3. Where did they go from Bordeaux?
4. Who gave Mattia a book called "Théorie de la Musique"?
5. What happened to M. Acquin?

3. Good questions:

1. What became of Dolce and Zerbino? Explain.
2. What part did a cow play in the story?
3. How did Remi find Lise again?
4. Who was Garofoli and what was his source of livelihood?
5. Describe the act which Remi and the monkey used to put on to entertain the villagers.

The objection may be raised that under a system such as this there is nothing to prevent the student from leaving all his outside reading reports to the last minute. The answer is that he must not report on more than *one* book at a time. The number of pages read is then divided by the time elapsed to determine his grade on the report. Let us say, for example, that the scoring rate is A, 60 pages per week; B, 45; and C, 30: Mr. Jones has read a 120-page book and reports on it at the end of the second week of the nine-week quarter; he would then receive a grade of A for his first two weeks. Then suppose that he reads another book of 120 pages but does not report on it until four more weeks have elapsed,  $120 \div 4 = 30$  pages per week or a C for those four weeks. He must now do some additional reading for the remaining two weeks of the eight scoring weeks and whatever grade he then receives will be averaged in with the two A's and four C's which he already has. A less fortunate example is Miss Smith who always lets her work go until the end of the quarter. She made a New Year's resolution and began a book at the beginning of the semester. She chose a short one that had a vocabulary and looked easy. But so many things were going on

<sup>1</sup> Meade, Cochran, and Eddy edition.



that she did not finish her 150-page novel until the end of the sixth week. She is startled to learn from her professor now that she can receive no credit on so short a book for so long a time, as 150 pages are only good for five weeks of C and there are six weeks gone. If, in the first of the two weeks that remain to her, she succeeds in reading a 210-page book, she can report on it and receive seven C's, the 150 pages of the first book may then be used for one single A on the remaining last week. Miss Smith has read a total of 360 pages, enough for eight B's, but she has only 7 C's and an A to show for it because she procrastinated. True, she might have picked out a 360-page French edition paper-backed novel in the first place and then she would not have had to report until the last week. But then she would have to use a dictionary and if she didn't quite finish in time, what a lot of wasted pages!

As a matter of fact, many students do leave their reading until the last weeks of the quarter, but then they must concentrate on some unabridged classic which very likely does them more good than if they religiously read thirty or fifty pages each week of some emasculated school edition, losing the thread of the story from week to week. It is good for a student to know he can sit down and digest a long French novel in two or three evenings of burning the midnight oil, and the chances are that he gets more pleasure and considerable satisfaction out of doing it that way.

A further advantage of the oral report outside of class time is the close personal contact which it establishes between student and teacher. The professor may use his questions to train and develop the student's appreciation not only of French literature but also of the foreign culture reflected by that literature. In this way interest is created in the advanced courses in French literature and the number of students continuing their work in French after the second year will increase, along with the number of majors in the department. In addition, even those students who merely wish to fulfil the two-year requirement will feel that their time has not been wasted while acquiring a tool which has already brought them considerable pleasure through the actual use they have made of it.

The most coveted reward is the approval of an admired teacher. A good grade is merely the visible symbol of that approval. A student who has come up to his professor's study to make oral reports on several long novels, during the course of his year's work in French, cannot fail to be aware of his teacher's esteem. This gives him confidence and adds much to his enjoyment of, and enthusiasm for his work in French. I would conclude, then, that a system of grading wherein rewards are stressed more than penalties is the most effective means of stimulating outside reading, and I should highly recommend a system of oral reports on complete book units as the best method for checking on the student's achievement.

## *That the Foreign Language Club May Survive*

E. HEYSE DUMMER

*Elmhurst College, Elmhurst, Illinois*

(*Author's summary.*—This paper (1) offers a solution to the problem of how to assure the continuation of the language club, especially at the smaller college, (2) states methods successfully employed by the author in language club work, and (3) offers some program suggestions.)

IN the present collegiate era one may of an evening on a large campus visit the Engineering Club, the Philosophy Club, or the History Club. During the same week the Psychology, the Commerce, and the Sociology clubs offer the opportunity of praising or criticizing the handiwork of the refreshment committee. Thus departmental societies have sprung up like a well-known weed of the chicory family. But today so frequently one notices with regret that the foreign language clubs, usually the oldest groups among campus societies, are compelled to work exceedingly hard to frustrate dissolution. Especially is their fight for preservation a difficult one on the campus of the smaller college. Among the several problems which sponsors of the Romance Language and German clubs on the smaller campus must face, the foremost has to do with "distance lends enchantment." It so happens that at an institution of several thousand students the language club can become a general meeting place for those who do not get as much as a fleeting glance of each other for weeks while rushing from class to class, from one end of the campus to the other. At the language club there is the chance to see and chat with friends and acquaintances from other German or Romance Language classes at least once a month, and to meet people interested in one's own subject. Thus, even if the program should not always prove attractive, the social hour will, and the incentive to put in one's appearance at the club is present. This condition, however, is not universal. On the campus harboring from one to five hundred students, Frank sees John and Mary meets Anne every day of the school year. They attend the same classes, sit at the same tables in the commons three times a day, and see the same movie on Saturday evenings. Why, many students ask, should an additional evening each month be spent together at the Deutscher Verein or the Romance Language clubs? This situation makes it mandatory for our literary societies to have something more to offer than folk-song programs and addresses by native speakers or by professors from neighboring institutions. Even films have lost their drawing power, one reason being that student audiences no longer care to be annoyed by the imperfections of the mechanical apparatus. By some strange alchemy, however, it comes to pass that the modern generation of students will always come out to witness a performance on the stage by three-dimensional human beings, who speak, laugh, weep, and gesticulate. And what has this to do with the membership of the foreign language club? Just this: If the language club—especially on the smaller campus—is to survive, it must adopt as its savior one of the oldest arts, dramatics.

In the discussion of this cardinal truth one vital fact must be emphasized especially. Unfortunately many in charge of language clubs entertain the false notion that dramatics can be for only the chosen few of the membership. Excluded from the predestined group are, as a rule, the first-year language students. It has become traditional to bar the newcomers from play casts for reasons which relate to pronunciation of the foreign idiom. To escape the torture of correcting *Umlauts* and *ichs* and *achs* constantly during play rehearsals, the neophyte has been avoided from the very outset, even if his talent in histrionics at high school was praised. This represents a pernicious policy which can harm our departmental societies most seriously. Dramatics must be open to each and every member, and the more of the membership engaged in club dramatics the better.

Despite linguistic difficulties there is room for the young Umlaut-sinners in play productions nevertheless. Let beginners take rôles in translations or adaptations of German plays, and they will do well, find joy in doing it, provide entertainment for others, and what is desirable likewise, they will renew their club membership each year of their stay at college. It may be a good recommendation to assign parts in translated plays *only* to beginners, as the writer has done in the past and with success. The older members will be pleased to see that newcomers get a chance to take an active part in the most appealing phase of club activities, dramatics.

Even if the sponsor makes it his concern to enlist as many as possible for the purpose of taking rôles in plays to be presented during a season, he will find, of course, that some cannot accept his invitation mainly because such a thing as *Lampenfieber* must be considered. However, such students are often willing and able to render a different service related to the stage business. Because it is no sacrilege to translate and revise or adapt plays intended for presentation, let one or more scholastically efficient groups be recruited, whose assignment should be to turn the text of foreign language plays into English. And strangely enough, here is an activity, which in class may often lack charm for some of the better students, yet which will prove fascinating outside of class. Needless to say that if plays are revised and adapted, students in the aforementioned *Arbeitsgemeinschaft* will also find ample opportunity to exhibit originality and will get as much enjoyment as the Thespians who recite their lines later on. To be sure, such co-workers must receive due recognition on the printed program and share the bouquets of applause with the *dramatis personae*. An award also awaits the faculty sponsor, who will have to supervise the work of the translators and others in the pen-and-pencil group personally, unless he can call upon a colleague for assistance. His duty becomes a pleasant one since he will remain mindful of the fact that this literary undertaking affords active participation for a larger or smaller number of club members—preferably advanced students—who would otherwise stand idle in the background and be in danger of

losing interest. The very thought of serving in such a helpful capacity is an ample remuneration in itself.

In the discussion thus far it has been taken for granted that the faculty member in charge of supervising the activities of the Cercle or Verein possesses sufficient histrionic ability to carry out a program of plays. Need a foreign language club suffer if the sponsor is inadequately equipped in the field of dramatic art? Certainly not. If a given group is committed to the belief that close attention to dramatics is vital, it need not drop this essential part of its program because the faculty sponsor is inexperienced in play directing. Even the smaller college is not without a department of Speech and Dramatic Art, with which members of our foreign language clubs come into contact quite early in their college career as a rule. Frequently the department offers a course in play directing. Capable foreign language students associated with our clubs, who participate successfully in English plays under the guidance of the Speech professor or who are in attendance upon the aforementioned course and possess talent in this field, will gladly rehearse our Thespians and get them ready for public performance. The work of the adviser is then reduced to that of a language coach, whose assignment confines itself to the drill of the pronunciation and intonation of the foreign language employed in the production directed by the student assistant. Even by this arrangement the policy under discussion can operate well and fears anent the uncertainty of a departmental club's future are made to vanish. And what is more, another student member of our society is given real work to do.

There is another way to keep our clubs busy—with choric verse speaking. Since choric verse speaking is related to stage work and dramatics, it is not out of place to speak of it here. Verse speaking choirs are popular today. Frequently one can hear them on national radio hookups, or, if one wants to see and hear such a group in action, one need only be on the lookout for the choric verse plays of T. S. Eliot, Gordon Bottomley, Laurence Binyon, and C. D. Lewis, whose plays have been successful in production. Today many large universities and colleges throughout the United States offer courses in choric verse speaking both in the regular and summer session. From Germany, where it was revived at the close of the World War, choric verse speaking spread to England, Scotland, Russia, Australia, Belgium, and the United States.

In our day various specialists led by Professor Floyd H. Allport stress the social factor in language. It has been pointed out in the literature on the subject that "choric verse speaking provides for group stimulation and response. The individual discusses a piece of creative writing in participation with others, and achieves an interpretation in which he expresses his personal appreciation and yet cooperates with the group as a unit in rhythm pause, pace, pronunciation, and phrasing." That this form of expression, which dates back to ancient Greek drama, "helps to release rich creative

power often unsuspected in the individual" seems to be commonly accepted by teachers of speech.

Here then is an activity which should have a place in the play program of our clubs. Choric verse plays enable one to carry out the desirable policy of employing large numbers of participants of all academic ranks in our stage undertakings. Moreover, the technique permits advanced students to assist beginners in the important matter of pronunciation, a help which busy sponsors and play directors may welcome. And here a method presents itself which is more satisfactory than many another, for by choral speaking the American student is enabled to learn rapidly the tune of the foreign speech. Thus an essential activity of the language club can serve effectively in modern foreign language instruction and help justify the existence of the Verein and Cercle and promote their longevity on the American college campus.

NOTE: Suitable "Sprechchortexte" for German clubs can be procured directly from the Theaterverlag Albert Langen, in care of Georg Mueller, Berlin SW 11, likewise from the Chr. Kaiser Verlag, München, Isabellastrasse 20, or through G. E. Stechert and Co., New York City.



## *Vistas: Some Dreams of a Modern Foreign Language Teacher*

By HENRY GRATTAN DOYLE

*The George Washington University, Washington, D. C.*

THE ideal commonwealth—Utopia—has always appealed to human beings. What would be the modern foreign language teacher's Utopia? With the reminder that I am speaking only for myself, I venture to set forth some of my dreams, or perhaps I should rather say vistas, for I hope to live to see most of them realized.

First, I dream of an educational curriculum which will take full cognizance of the fact that no country can live in isolation—or insulation—from the other countries of the world. Radio, aviation, improved communications generally, make this impossible. A child of this modern world cannot escape some contact with foreign cultures if he is to be really educated, and that contact can be made effective only through the medium of language, our own, and the foreign language. Foreign language study, in my Utopia, will be considered as a normal, natural outgrowth of the study of the mother-tongue itself, an indispensable means of conveying information and ideas.

Second, I envision a curriculum in which adequate time will be given for this training, not the ineffective two school-years which, reported by the Modern Foreign Language Study merely as the *average* time devoted to modern foreign languages, has by some hocus-pocus been established by curriculum-makers as the *maximum* time to be allotted, grudgingly, to modern foreign language study. In my Utopia, children will begin a foreign language earlier and continue its study longer, much longer.

Third, in my dreams I see advocates of all the modern foreign languages standing together in fostering these objectives, realizing that their work and aims are similar and complementary, not competitive.

Fourth, I live for a Utopia in which differences of opinion over details and methods will be minimized, and success in achieving objectives emphasized; in which standardization will be sought not in routines, but in goals and achievements.

Fifth, I dream of an educational world in which modern foreign language teachers and curriculum-makers, testers, experimenters, and other scientific investigators will co-operate more fully than ever before.

Sixth, I see all the believers in cultural studies, as opposed to the present trend towards naturalistic and animalistic education, standing together against those concepts of education which place the production of healthy animals and of effective cogs in a regimented society above the rights of the individual to unlimited self-development through contact with the best minds of all ages and all times. This means co-operation with teachers of English, of history, of mathematics, of Latin and Greek, of the physical



and biological sciences, of philosophy, of art, of music, with all those who believe in an education that makes life more than a machine-like existence for the benefit of seen or unseen masters.

Seventh, I foresee new emphasis upon the social significance of all modern foreign language study (using "social" in its broad and democratic, not its "society" sense), to the end that foreign cultures shall be respected because they will be really understood. And as a corollary, even as the capstone to this broader emphasis, a new appreciation of our own civilization and of its place in a world in which the ideal of human brotherhood shall approach reality.

# *The Rise of the German Universities*

HERMANN BARNSTORFF

*University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin*

(*Author's summary.*—From the middle ages to the present day one can distinguish ten periods which contributed to the founding of most German universities. The reason for their establishment and the historical influences which molded the development of higher learning in Germany are set forth.)

STUDENTS of the history of German civilization are amazed at the number of universities which were founded in Germany from the Middle Ages to the present time, and must be the more surprised if they compare Germany with other European countries in this respect. Such a development demands an explanation; and this outline intends to give the various political, social, cultural, and spiritual factors that played a part whenever a new German university was founded.

The mediaeval European universities have no connection with the universities of antiquity, for Christianity had annihilated the Greek institutions of higher learning. The occidental western world was perfectly satisfied with its monastic and cathedral schools in which theology was studied as a craft. When, however, through Arabian intermediaries the works of the Greek philosophers, above all Aristotle, were made known to Christian teachers, the study of these thinkers created sufficient mental maturity and the desire for additional knowledge. The struggle between the old Christian theology and the Greek philosophy caused an intellectual stimulus for a center of scholastic learning, as it developed in Paris from about 1150. Quite different factors led to the erection of the first Italian universities. The medical school of Salerno (1096) owes its origin to Arabian influence, while the peculiar political, economic, and legal conditions in Northern Italy caused the foundation of a law school in Bologna (1158).

Looking at Germany, it is surprising to notice that the culture of the Middle High German epoch of the thirteenth century, which surpassed that of all other European countries, had so little connection with the world of learning. This culture was a pure expression of knighthood, to which neither the scholar nor the bourgeois contributed a significant share. After the decline of knighthood the scholastic spirit exercised a far greater influence and was supported in its efforts by the city population, by that time becoming a powerful factor of mediaeval life. The demand for higher education, always a quality of the bourgeois classes, caused many young Germans to go for study to France and Italy, as no opportunity was offered them in their home country.

From Otto I, the founder of the so-called "First Reich," the Hohenstaufen emperors had adopted the idea of ruling over Italy and disregarded the Guelphian principle of a separation of Italy and Germany and an extension towards the East. In the fourteenth century, however, this policy of the Hohenstaufen was reversed. Louis of Bavaria felt that the German

imperial position did not need either the homage of the Italian cities or a papal consent, and forced the Electors at Rense, 1338, to adopt the decision that the duly elected German ruler be entitled to the name of Roman Emperor. Such a step was made possible because the Church of Rome had fallen under the influence of the Kings of France (Popes at Avignon 1309-76). The most ardent supporter of the Guelphian principle was Emperor Charles IV, King of Bohemia, who had studied at Paris and had been educated at French and Italian courts. Considered as a very learned prince and as a man of far-sighted ideas and encouraged by his Guelphian viewpoint, Charles IV founded the University of Prague in 1348. Bohemia was colonial territory, an outpost towards the East; and Prague was to serve as a citadel against the Slavic pressure. Dynastic purposes were combined with the founding of the university; for the Emperor wanted to raise the prestige of the House of Luxembourg from which he came, and also wanted to keep the German students in his own country. Just as in Paris and Bologna, the students in Prague were divided into nationalities, of which there were four in Prague: Bohemians, Bavarians, Saxons, and Poles.

With the founding of the University of Prague the Emperor had set an example, and other princes followed. In Vienna Duke Rudolf, a son-in-law of the Emperor, established an institute of higher learning in 1365, and the University of Heidelberg was a monarchical creation of the Count Palatine of the Rhine after the model of Prague and Vienna.

Besides the princely rulers, the rising cities took an interest in higher education. Cologne, the seat of an Archbishop, was not only known for her wealth and commerce, but also for the intellectual curiosity of her inhabitants. Famous men, among them the Dominican Thomas Aquinas and the Franciscan Duns Scotus, had lived at Cologne; and their respective monasteries—Cologne was a city of many orders—had been the battleground of scholasticism between the nominalists and the realists. Toward the end of the fourteenth century there originated in Cologne a desire for a "studium generale," as the university study was called, and the City council urged by the Augustinians petitioned Pope Urban II for the permission to establish a university. In 1388 Cologne received her papal charter.

To the spirit of municipal enterprise alone the University of Erfurt, where Luther studied law, owes its birth. Before Cologne thought of establishing a seat of higher learning the citizens of Erfurt asked the Pope at Avignon to allow them to found a university; but a number of years elapsed until the rich Hanseatic town received her charter, and in 1392 the school with its beautiful buildings still standing opened.

In a strange manner Leipzig got her university. When King Wenzel of Bohemia gave the Czech students greater privileges than the students of other nations enjoyed, the members of the German nations, feeling unjustly treated, moved in 1409 to Leipzig, then a flourishing trade center. More than a thousand students and teachers were gladly received by the city

fathers and found the same hearty welcome from Leipzig's sovereign, the Count of Meissen, who, with a minimum of expense, insured for his country students and above all a good teaching staff. This co-operation between ruler and city proved an immediate success. In a similar way the University of Rostock (1419) owes its inception to a combined interest of the Dukes of Mecklenburg and the city council of Rostock.

With the establishment of Rostock as a university the first wave or period of German university founding ended. The spirit of scholasticism hovered over the entire movement, and one feels the desire on the part of the institutions to get away from the immediate control of the church. With the help of the universities, the princes as well as the cities in Germany hoped to strengthen the people politically, economically, and intellectually. The geographical location of the seven schools is of great significance. North and East established more universities than South and West. North and East, colonial soil with democratic features of an immigrant population, needed unity and power against the Slavs, and education was a force and a weapon in this struggle. The students from Southern and Western Germany could reach foreign colleges easily, but the students in the Eastern and Northern parts were in need of places of study nearer their homes.

An entire generation was satisfied with the seven universities created between 1348 and 1419. All of them had received their charters from the Pope, and in all of them the spirit of scholasticism ruled. Their practical purpose cannot be overlooked. The clergy received a better education, the sovereign's officials were trained in Roman jurisprudence, and to urban life the universities contributed better lawyers and doctors.

In the meantime the western world came under the influence of the humanists. The German universities, where scholasticism was strongly entrenched, fought the new movement and kept it out of the colleges. The humanists, on the other hand, abhorred the straight-jackets of order and system and preferred to gain influence at the courts and in the cities.

It would be wrong to explain the second period of university promotion in Germany beginning in 1456 with the establishment of Greifswald for purely humanistic reasons. Greifswald owes its rise to the same practical reasons as Rostock, and the first teachers were outspoken scholasticists. But very soon the students demanded and got "the new Parisian teaching." When, however, the University of Freiburg i. B. was established in 1457, Emperor Frederick III issued the charter, and the spirit of humanism controlled the college from the start. In Basel the great church council had met from 1431 to 1449, which many great scholars had attended. When they left, the townsmen desired to give their native city a permanent place of learned activity. It is worth mentioning that the University of Basel, founded 1460 on a papal charter, took Erfurt, the municipal institution, as a model.

Humanism and princely ambition were responsible for the creation of several other seats of learning. Bavaria founded Ingolstadt in 1472, Württemberg established her university at Tübingen in 1477, and Frederick the Wise of Saxonia erected Wittenberg in 1502. Brandenburg under the rule of the Hohenzollern had to be urged by Emperor Maximilian I, and Elector Joachim established Frankfurt an der Oder as the first Brandenburg college.

With Frankfurt the humanistic period came to a close. Humanism had driven away scholasticism from most of the German institutions. The Erfurt circle with the *Epistolae obscurorum virorum* had succeeded in holding up to ridicule the scholastic teachers and their defenders.

Before, however, the scholasticists and humanists had finished their battle, Luther's reformation aroused Germany, and as a popular movement it conquered a number of universities, above all Wittenberg, and caused the establishment of new universities. Marburg has the honor of being the first new creation of Protestantism. Count Philipp of Hesse became the driving force of the new creed and issued a charter, whereupon Marburg opened its doors in 1529. That twelve years afterwards the German emperor sent a belated consent was just a diplomatic gesture. The Reformation reached Prussia, the old colony of the German knights, rather rapidly; and the Protestant faith became the bulwark against the Catholic Poles. When Duke Albrecht of Prussia in 1544 founded the University of Königsberg, Luther assisted him with advice, and Melanchthon sent his son-in-law Sabinus as "rector perpetuus." It would not be wrong to call Wittenberg the intellectual mother of Königsberg. But the spirit of liberty which Duke Albrecht hoped to create never sprang into existence. Königsberg became a place of Protestant intolerance from which its greatest student, Emanuel Kant, suffered so much. When Wittenberg temporarily was given to the Albertinian line, the Ernestian branch of the house of Saxony founded Jena 1558 as the anchor of Lutheran orthodoxy.

Duke Julius of Brunswick had embraced Protestantism as a young man, and in order to procure for his country the opportunity of higher education he instituted the University of Helmstedt 1576, which flourished very much during the period of baroque.

All Protestant creations so far considered were promotions of the sovereign who had come under the spell of humanism and reformation. Only Nuremberg with her great civic culture was an exception. The city on the Pegnitz felt the need for the highest academic honors and erected in 1578 a college at Altdorf. This small town belonged to Nuremberg politically and was chosen because the careful burghers did not believe in exposing the students to the danger of the big city.

The Lutheran movement had conquered a large number of the old universities and contributed to the establishment of new schools, when the Catholic side endeavored to restrict the expansion of Protestantism and

attempted to regain lost territory through promoting Catholic institutions. This movement was started by the far-seeing and clever Bishop of Augsburg, Otto von Waldburg, who in 1554 selected Dillingen, as he could not execute his plans in the predominantly Protestant Augsburg. Lack of funds, however, caused him to turn over the University of Dillingen to the rich order of the Jesuits. Having gained a foothold the Jesuits founded one college after another. They are: Braunsberg (1568), Olmütz (1568), Würzburg (1582), Graz (1585), Innsbruck (1606), Paderborn (1614), Salzburg (1623), Osnabrück (1630), Breslau (1636), and Bamberg (1648). The goal of these schools was to check the spread of Protestantism and to strengthen the Catholic church. In frequent instances they fulfilled the demand of territorial universities, were skilfully conducted, and did not drain the finances of the sovereign of the state.

Considering the geographical location of the Jesuit colleges, one is struck by the interesting fact that they form a half circle through Germany. They start with Osnabrück in the northwestern point, go south over Paderborn, Würzburg, Dillingen to Innsbruck, then east until Graz, and come northward over Olmütz and Breslau to Braunsberg in East Prussia. The geographical feature has had a great significance for the counter-reformation, as it gave the Catholics an opportunity to separate the Lutheran territories in Northern and Middle Germany from the Swiss and South German Protestantism.

The Catholic zeal aroused opposition, and three Protestant universities were erected. Giessen became a university center in 1602 when the Lutheran professors and students left Marburg because they refused to accept the Calvinistic creed, practised by the reformed line of the House of Hesse. The free city of Strasbourg, wealthy through trade and commerce, had become a great publishing center of the Protestant Church. The civic spirit of the inhabitants demanded a seat of higher learning free from church control, and in 1621 the University of Strasbourg opened its doors. The same year Count Earnest of Schaumburg founded Rinteln on the banks of the Weser River.

In the meantime the terrible Thirty Years' War had broken out. Scholasticism and humanism, reformation and counter-reformation had not been able to reach a synthesis. The future was left to short-sighted politicians, and these in turn relied on still more short-sighted generals to decide the fate of Germany on the battlefields.

When towards the middle of the seventeenth century peace reigned again in Germany, most educational efforts had stopped. Intolerance dominated the life of the universities, and the churches drifted in a stream of intellectual petrification. But a new philosophy came to Germany. Bacon and Descartes, sceptical of traditional thought, opened up new philosophical vistas and led the way to the period of rationalism.

The new spirit from the West not only caused struggle in the halls of the



old schools but led to the foundation of new institutions. The first university of rationalism was erected by the Grand Elector of Brandenburg-Prussia at Duisburg, 1655, in order to give his subjects in the Rhineland an opportunity to study at home. Ten years later the Duke of Holstein promoted Kiel to a territorial college and selected outspoken rationalists as teachers.

If one wants to get a conception of the conditions at a German university of the end of the seventeenth century, one ought to read about Leipzig. Speculative thought was taboo. The scholars felt comfortably entrenched in a rigid dogma and were satisfied to broadcast their wisdom in Latin; then something terrible happened: Christian Thomasius in 1687 announced a course to be given in the German language:

Christian Thomas eröffnet der Studierenden Jugend zu Leipzig in einem Discours welcher Gestalt man denen Frantzosen nachahmen solle? ein Collegium über des Gratians<sup>1</sup> Grund-Regeln/ Vernünfftig/ klug und artig zu leben.

As in France the language of the country should be used in academic work, and the spirit of the course was signified by the one word: Vernünfftig. The iconoclast Thomasius did not stay long at Leipzig. He fled to Berlin and hoped to gain a foothold at the capital of Brandenburg. But the Hohenzollern were clever enough to see that Berlin must remain a town of officers and officials. Thomasius was sent to Halle to teach at the local academy. August Hermann Francke, the theologian, likewise driven from Leipzig, joined him; and because of the ceaseless endeavors of Thomasius and Francke, Halle received a charter from the Elector of Brandenburg in 1694. The school was very successful. The free spirit attracted the best teachers, of whom the philosopher and rationalist Christian Wolff became the center.

Göttingen, it is true, owes its inception in 1737 to the Elector of Hanover, who as King George II had spent fifteen years in England. When upon his return to Hanover he realized that his country had no university, the monarch took the necessary steps to secure for it a place of higher learning. Under the clever guidance of Gerhard Adolf von Münchhausen, Göttingen grew up in the spirit of rationalism; and as Hanover was closely united with England, more than one liberal spark sprang over to the continent. Göttingen succeeded in collecting a great library and became a fashionable institution, the meeting-place of many foreign students.

Through the efforts of rational absolutism the universities of Erlangen and Bonn were established in 1743 and 1788, respectively.

The advance of rationalism did not please the conservative Catholics. But they could only muster enough strength to found one anti-rationalistic institution. In 1773 Baron Fürstenberg, Vicar General of Westphalia, established the University of Münster. The school led a precarious existence

<sup>1</sup> Baltasar Gracian (1601-58), Spanish Jesuit, prolific writer; Thomasius refers to Gracians well-known "Oraculo manual."

until it was closed in the beginning of the nineteenth century and opened again in 1902.

The greatest rationalist sitting on a European throne, Frederick the Great, was no friend of the universities and made no attempt to increase their number in his country. Prussia had to undergo the deepest humiliation by Napoleon to be aroused to new action. When, besides Frankfurt an der Oder and Königsberg, all Prussian universities had been taken by the French, the national spirit revolted. In spite of poverty and distress, plans for a new university were made. The eminent philologist F. A. Wolf set up a rationalistic programme, Fichte's plan was inspired by patriotic fervor, and Schleiermacher gave his ideas a fine romantic touch.<sup>2</sup> Finally Wilhelm von Humboldt, minister of education in Prussia, was entrusted with the task of establishing a university in Berlin, the capital of Prussia. In spite of political weakness and disorganization, Germany was in the zenith of her greatest intellectual power. The threads of rationalism, classicism, and romanticism in a beautifully woven net covered her. Wilhelm von Humboldt selected from these threads; and as a practical official he took surprisingly many rationalistic ideas and created in 1810 a scientific ideal, gave to the German university of the nineteenth century the form for which it became world famous: mutual relationship between teaching and research, and a government institution with non-interference of the government in academic freedom. The best German scholars accepted calls to Berlin, and Treitschke's words "Men make the university" never had a truer meaning.

The university of teaching and research in the capital of the country, this remarkable feature of Berlin, caused the King of Bavaria in 1826 to move the old Ingolstadt school which had found a temporary shelter at Landshut, to Munich, where the new university found great favor, but needed decades to liberalize itself.

The impulse for science, for scientific research and furthermore the cult of specialization, which pervaded the nineteenth century, led to the foundation of institutions which served purely practical purposes. From 1826 to 1902, with the exception of the re-Germanization of Strassburg, (1872) no German university was opened. On the other hand technical colleges, schools of commerce and agriculture, mining institutes sprang up and fulfilled the demand of the hour.

At the turn of the century, when Germany was in the midst of an extended economic rise, the number of big cities increased sharply. Some of them, like Berlin, Munich, Leipzig, and Breslau, were lucky enough to have a university. Other big cities were not so fortunate. Another wave of

<sup>2</sup> Johann Gottlieb Fichte, "Deduzierter Plan einer zu Berlin zu errichtenden höheren Lehranstalt." Printed 1817. Friedrich Ernst Daniel Schleiermacher, "Gelegentliche Gedanken über Universitäten im deutschen Sinn, nebst einem Anhang über eine neu zu errichtende." Berlin, 1808.

university promotion set in. No sovereign, no religious movement, no philosophical movement was urging; the metropolitan will to power—not the devoted feeling for civic duty, but the money of big business and high finance—endeavoring to lower the cost of higher education to the children of their salaried employees, established the universities of Frankfurt-am-Main (1914), Cologne (1919) and Hamburg (1919).

This outline has attempted to present ten periods in which the German universities were established and to give the social, political, economic and humanistic causes of their origin. Frequently the old ideas had to give way to new ones. Without struggle and alarming prophecies such changes do not take place. The scholasticists wailed when they were driven out by the humanists. The orthodox Protestants pictured the downfall of their colleges when rationalism entered; and during the nineteenth century the fight was against a democratic-positivistic-materialistic spirit which was supposed to undermine the so-called German idealism. The German universities experienced many a crisis, and each time they succeeded in passing it.

What is the attitude of the "Third Reich" towards the universities? The National Socialists do not favor new creations. On the contrary, they would like to reduce the number of the institutions, because they believe that Germany has too many universities and too many students. For that reason immatriculation has been made very difficult; and the universities in the large cities, regarded as hot beds of communism, have been forced to reduce the number of their students. The universities of the totalitarian state are unions of professors and students. Besides teaching and learning a specific subject, great stress is laid on political education, formation of character, and development of the physical body. A well-disciplined youth—not too many—may take up higher studies. This ideology has demanded instructors in sympathy with the national socialistic viewpoint. Various repercussions naturally followed these changes. Subdued in Germany, openly and loudly in other parts of the world, one heard: That is the doom of the German university. Is there enough reason to be so pessimistic? Many times the German universities have had to change the course. Quite often new universities have been founded in order to extend new ideas. But that is now hardly possible or desirable. The course which the Third Reich forced the universities to adopt will in a sense retard the German institutions. Regrettable as such a turn may seem, one ought to hope that the present interlude will make way for a greater significance and a higher development of the German universities.

#### BIBLIOGRAPHY

For arousing my interest in the history of the German universities I have to thank my teachers Prof. Edward Schroeder and Prof. Karl Brandi of Göttingen (Germany).

Indispensable is the great bibliography by Wilhelm Erman and Ewald Horn: *Bibliographie der deutschen Universitäten*, 3 vol. 1904-5.

Following books and articles furnished me with factual information:

- Georg Kaufmann, *Die Geschichte der deutschen Universitäten*, 2 vol. 1888 and 1896.
- Friedrich Paulsen, *Die deutschen Universitäten und das deutsche Universitätsstudium*. 1902.  
(Transl. *The German Universities and University Study*, New York, 1906.)
- Friedrich Schultze und Paul Ssymank, *Das deutsche Studententum*, 1910.
- M. Lenz, *Geschichte der Universität Berlin*, 1910.
- Otto Harnack, *Wilhelm von Humboldt*, 1913.
- Wilh. Bruchmüller, *Das deutsche Studententum*, 1922.
- S. A. Kähler, *Wilhelm von Humboldt und der Staat*, 1927.
- Richard Graf Du Moulin Eckart, *Geschichte der deutschen Universitäten*, 1929.
- Hans Wilhelm Hagen, *Die geschichtliche Entfaltung der deutschen Universitäten*. In *Burschenschaftliche Blätter*, Juni 1937.
- Kurt Reich, *Die Berliner Universität*. In *Burschenschaftliche Blätter*, August 1937.
- Edward Y. Hartshorne, *German Universities and National Socialism*, Harvard University Press, 1937.

# *Modern Foreign Languages in a Social Study Program with Special Reference to the Training of Modern Language Teachers\**

CAMERON C. GULLETTE

*University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois*

(*Author's summary.*—A discussion of: (a) the difficulty facing prospective teachers who must prepare to teach several subjects, who must secure sufficient hours in each and suitable education credits for certification, and who must meet requirements for graduation; (b) the relative value of subject combinations as an aid to securing a position.)

IN spite of the papers which you have just heard, education has been going through a period of increasing specialization in recent years—an educational or subject specialization which has imitated the prevailing tendency in nearly all fields of activity. In medicine, for example, the general practitioner has been supplanted to a considerable extent by the specialist until there is foundation for such anecdotes as the one according to which a medical student came to his adviser saying that at last he had decided in what field to specialize, that he would go in for nasal work. To this his adviser replied: "Fine! Fine! Which nostril?" Or, in another field, in interior decoration, the story is told of a specialist in the Louis Quinze period who was so profoundly versed in his subject that when he saw a room in which one small ornament of Louis Seize style had accidentally been placed he was unable to sleep all the following night from the shock of it. Other fields show an equally high degree of specialization, as a glance at a university catalogue will reveal. For example, one is not just a professor of engineering, electrical or civil, but may be Professor of Refrigeration; Engineering Materials; Highway Engineering; Structural Engineering; Metallurgical Engineering; Railway Electrical Engineering, etc. Or, in other departments, there are such specialized titles as Professor of Dairy Bacteriology; Livestock Marketing; Beef Cattle Husbandry, not just "animal" Husbandry, you see, but something much more specialized; Soil Fertility; Plant Genetics; Olericulture; Floral Physiology; Civic Design.

In language work the tendency to specialization is shown not only by the dissatisfaction graduate advisers feel with the work of many M.A. candidates, but by the insistence of educational-practice critic-teachers that the student teachers are usually too poorly prepared in actual command of elementary grammar. Language departments feel that the hours in the undergraduate major should be increased, that students cannot be well prepared unless the whole field has been covered. And not only is a language student supposed to be well prepared in *one* language, but stress is placed on knowing other languages and their literatures and on the advantage of such a mastery as an aid to obtaining a position.

\* Read at the Central West and South Annual Meeting in St. Louis, May 7, 1938.

This tendency toward specialization represents one aspect of the situation and the trend toward integration of subjects in a social study type of curriculum represents the opposite tendency. A great number of recent talks and articles attest the importance which is attached to this new, social study emphasis in education. Whatever the outcome may be, whatever form the modification of the curriculum may take, let us hope that languages remain in the course of study and that by adapting ourselves to a new handling and emphasis we may insure to students the benefits of language study. As the general aspect of the subject has been treated by the preceding speakers I shall not attempt to elaborate or repeat, but proceed to the particular phase allotted to me for discussion.

Assuming that languages will be taught and that language teachers (those teaching in secondary schools, particularly) will be willing—and expected—to include social-study work and to integrate their subject with that of other departments, what will be the effect on the language group? There would seem to be four main problems involved: (a) teachers must know with what subjects languages can be integrated or correlated; (b) they must know how such correlation is to be accomplished; (c) each language teacher must be well acquainted with a number of other fields of secondary education; (d) they must know how to develop desirable social attitudes in their pupils.

In regard to the first two problems—with *what subjects* and *how* to integrate or correlate—many articles are available, offering excellent suggestions, and you have just heard admirable discussions by the preceding speakers of ways of social study correlation. One thing, however, I should like to say, in addition to actual social study material, and limited only by the wealth or paucity of library material available and the inventiveness of teachers and pupils, almost any subject would seem to admit of integration with language work through outside reading, themes, projects, or contracts which could take the place of some of the formal class recitation and afford a means of accommodation of individual difference. Pupil interest in other subjects could be turned to account in language channels and the laggard in language stimulated to increased endeavor along with the brilliant language student, since a wider range of subjects would be available for this individual, extra credit work. It would mean more planning and conference work for the language teacher, of course, but let us hope that all the burden would not fall on our group, and that teachers of other subjects would co-operate in planning and arranging the correlated projects. Since differentiated assignments or accommodation of individual difference is highly desirable and all too often no provision is made for it, this new emphasis on correlation with other subjects by means of outside reading, themes, projects, or contracts would fill a real need. A warning might be sounded here, to the effect that such work should not be added to courses as they now exist, if these are already stiff, but be substituted for some of



the less essential class work. One aspect of the matter would perhaps be troublesome—the lack of library materials in the foreign language for such extra reading. Work could be done in English, of course, but, from our standpoint, it would be highly desirable to do as much as possible in the foreign tongue.

It is when we take up discussion of the third and fourth aspects of the matter—necessity for increased knowledge of (a) other subjects and (b) of what desirable social attitudes to develop, and how to develop them—that difficulty arises. Earlier in this paper attention was called to the complete opposition shown by the two tendencies, of specialization on the one hand, and the integrated and social study types of curriculum on the other. How can a high school teacher, for example, be more thoroughly prepared and highly specialized in her language major and her minors and yet get a wider range of non-language courses, within the present number of hours standard for the A.B. degree? I say “high school teacher” because it is almost impossible to secure full-time college language positions without a degree of specialization sufficient to eliminate college teachers from the field under discussion, and because the number of high school teachers of language is so great that they constitute our main problem. I repeat, how can these two aims be attained under our present systems of majors and minors? I do not believe that a solution is impossible, but it is certainly difficult. We need more review courses of grammar, composition, pronunciation, diction, and civilization, carrying credit in the upper brackets of advanced undergraduate-graduate courses. A certain number of hours of these could be substituted for literary courses, especially in the case of students who showed deficiency in these fields. The common complaint, among students is that they knew their elementary work well, at one time but, after a couple of years of exclusively literary courses, have lost a large amount of their ready command and familiarity with precisely the material they will have to teach. The advanced review courses would correct this and would benefit prospective teachers of either high school or college classes without adding to the hours devoted to the major—if substitution be permitted, as suggested. Composition and conversation courses are now offered in many schools, but the review of grammar included is perhaps not systematic enough nor sufficiently concerned with elementary material to be of greatest value to prospective teachers.

This proposal does not offer a solution for increased familiarity with non-language courses, however, and, again, as major and minor requirements now stand, the problem is a difficult one. If colleges were to offer special elementary survey courses in sociology, biological science, physical science, or general science, taking in the wide range of subject matter usually included in high school courses, the solution would be simpler. Then college students could get a fairly comprehensive, if superficial, acquaintance with several general fields without using up too many hours. Otherwise

they would need to take three or four courses in each field, carrying a much greater number of hours credit, encroaching on the hours required for majors and minors. Whether colleges will offer such courses remains to be seen, but their usefulness is apparent, and if they are not provided the hour requirements for graduation will need to be changed. This problem has a greater importance than merely making possible preparation for integration of language work with other subjects or fitting languages into a social study curriculum, important as these aims may be. It is actually a matter of job or no job, in the case of a large number of our prospective teachers. No college graduate who is without teaching experience can expect to secure a position in a large school system where high specialization in language would stand him in good stead. Rather, if inexperienced, he can only count on landing a job in a small high school—and in practically every case the teacher in the small school must teach three subjects. As shown in the April, 1938, *Quarterly* of the North Central Association, on page 443, 78 per cent of all the high schools accredited by the association have less than twenty teachers per school and 69 per cent have less than sixteen teachers each. With few exceptions subjects taught in these schools offer less than a full-time teaching load. This means that teachers in these schools must teach more than one subject and, quite commonly, because of unsystematized assignment of subjects, teach three or even more subjects. This is true of three-fourths of our high schools and precisely of those in which prospective high school teachers without experience must get their start. And not only must the teacher in the small school teach several subjects, but he must have sufficient college credit hours in them to be certified to teach them, otherwise a school is not safe in hiring him and may have difficulty with the state teacher certification bureau. In addition, in Indiana, a teacher must have had a course in "Methods" in each subject which he is called upon to teach. In Illinois the minimum number of hours for accrediting to teach a subject is sixteen. The requirements for certification vary from state to state, but are becoming increasingly strict. Therefore, when a student must have a certain number of hours for each teaching subject and cannot claim specialization and eligibility in his major without training amounting to twice the minimum, i.e., about thirty-two hours and must take fifteen hours of "education" as a minimum, the problem of a wider range of subjects becomes difficult. Perhaps some leniency and discretion may be exercised by the certifying agencies, but that cannot be counted upon and the situation must be met under its most rigid conditions.

In this connection mention should be made of the importance of suitable teaching combinations. The language department stress upon the value of several languages and their literatures (the specialist tendency), would be excellent for the prospective teacher in a large high school or in college, where there is enough language work for full-time positions in language. But what about the student without experience who must take

a position in a small school and teach several subjects? Studies made of teaching combinations have shown that the small high school rarely offers more than one modern language, sometimes Latin as well, and, if only one foreign language is taught, that one will usually be Latin.

Quoting again from the North Central Association *Quarterly* for April, the following figures are significant. A random sampling of 200 small accredited high schools with no more than ten teachers on the staff of each revealed that 152 gave no modern language. Only 48 out of 200 included a modern language or languages in the curriculum.

A wider sampling of 728 high schools, large and small, revealed that 289, or 39.7 per cent, offered French; 81, or 11.1 per cent, offered German; and 154, or 21.2 per cent, offered Spanish. Schools having from twenty teachers on up constituted the majority of the cases.

Figures from the 1936-37 report of the appointments committee of the University of Illinois, compiled by Dr. L. W. Williams, show that out of forty-one calls for teachers of French, five were for French alone and thirty-six for combination with other subjects. Of fifteen calls for German teachers all were for combination with other subjects. In Spanish the figures were three to seven. And, if it be any consolation to the modern language teachers, the situation is even more one-sided in Latin: only five calls out of 127 were for Latin alone, leaving 122 out of 127 calls for combination. Very nearly the same ratio obtains in calls for teachers in all subjects. In this report out of a total of 1453 calls for undergraduate degree teachers 518 were for one subject, 498 for two, 301 for three, 103 for four, 26 for five, and 7 for six subjects. That gives 518 calls for one subject against 935 for more than one. It must be understood, of course, that these figures apply chiefly to small schools. In a larger system where experience is a prerequisite and the prospective teacher cannot usually count on consideration of his candidacy—the situation would be different. Many of the subject-combination calls are for distinctly odd and unnatural grouping of subjects, according to the Potthoff report quoted in the North Central Association *Quarterly*. These are the result of peculiar local conditions or a laissez-faire continuation of such conditions after changes of staff would easily permit more natural combinations. It is difficult to state any great number of subject combinations that might be most successful with modern languages, but, according to Dr. Williams, a French-Latin combination would be most likely to land a job, with French-English second and German-Latin third. History would make a poor minor, for that field is badly overcrowded. Other fields have a natural grouping—in calls, at least—so that language combinations which might seem good actually receive few calls. Such other subject combinations are: English and Latin; biological and physical sciences and mathematics; political science, history, and economics; mathematics with commercial subjects, such as bookkeeping, or mathematics and physics; home economics and biology; English and

speech. Dr. Williams also states that participation in extracurricular activities such as dramatics, school paper or annual, departmental clubs, and both the religious and social affairs of churches may be as helpful to prospective teachers in securing positions as subject courses are.

In conclusion, it would seem that the future may show need for two types of training. For those who, without previous teaching experience, seek a high school position, a plan should be worked out whereby either a change in hour requirements or introduction of general survey courses will enable them to get broader acquaintance with several fields without putting in too many hours in separate courses or interfering with majors and minors. At the same time they must have solid training in the major and first minor. This training can be improved over actual conditions, from the point of view of the language work they will teach, by the inclusion of advanced-credit review courses in the linguistics and civilization. These people should pay special attention to subject-combinations, and to learning how to integrate with other subjects and how to develop desirable social study attitudes in their pupils. After experience has been secured, further specialization in their language work will qualify them for all-language positions in larger high school systems or in junior college and college teaching.

For those who wish to teach exclusively in junior college or college departments the present tendency to higher specialization in language work should be satisfactory, with encouragement to take the linguistic review work. They will, however, need to take a master's degree before they can hope to secure a position and will probably find that the Ph.D. is necessary. In their case lack of experience will be balanced by the advanced degrees. These people, too, may well learn to integrate language work with other subjects and make capital of the social-study trend, for we should all take advantage of curriculum developments that can contribute to successful teaching.

## *Spanish Mother Goose*

ROBERT E. LUCKEY  
*Portales, New Mexico*

(*Author's summary.*—Most students never realize language as thought because they never feel anything demanding expression and communication. Nursery rhymes learned in childhood lend a peculiar life and color to one's ideational makeup. Will students respond to a challenge to express these old rhymes in Spanish?)

THE more a sunbeam is condensed, the deeper it burns." If the activities of our language classes could become vital to the student, there is no doubt that we should see vastly improved results for our instruction. Much of school activity seems to the student to be mere fiddling, for he feels no connection between this work and his natural interests. The student who has a real enthusiasm for his work is rare—almost as rare, but not quite, I believe, as the teacher who knows how to instill in the student under him a true desire to learn, be the cost in hard work what it may.

It is the purpose of this paper to offer to other teachers a scheme by means of which one composition assignment was made vital and interesting to the students of a second-year Spanish class—a scheme small in scope and simple in detail. As used by the writer, it was a one-day assignment in which each student was asked to write a Spanish version of some well-known little ditty—nursery rhymes of four lines were suggested. The assignment was to be completed on a Friday; it was first mentioned to the class on Monday of that week. The students responded very favorably. Much more interest was shown than on any other composition assignment during the year. (The only close approach was an assignment in which the class was asked to write an epitaph for Lope de Vega, after having studied an account of his life.) More students consulted the teacher, also texts and dictionaries, regarding constructions and word usages than at any other time during the year. When, on Friday, each student was asked to present his work orally to the class, much more effort was made to "put the thing across" by careful reading than had ever before been seen in this class.

One or two of the resulting "poems," as the students called them, were pleasing; many were mediocre; many were grotesque. The teacher considered the assignment a success, not because of the quality of work turned out by the students, but because of the quality of their feeling toward Spanish and the change it underwent as a result of the activity.

This "poem" found its way to the class bulletin board, partly because its author was an artist of sorts, and embellished his paper with judicious flourishes and shading.

Juan, sea activo;  
Juan, sea vivo;  
Juan saltó sobre el candelero.

"Mary Had a Little Lamb" was a favorite. This example is perhaps typical.

María tenía un corderito  
Su vellón era blanco tanto nieve  
En todas partes que María fué  
El corderito era seguro ir

The teacher of English will perhaps be alarmed at the lack of punctuation. The language teacher notes a difficulty which is a big problem with beginning students—the tendency to translate words rather than thought (The lamb was sure to go); and he notes that this girl, as well as others of the class, needs to have her attention redirected to the *tan . . . como* construction.

Another example:

María tenía una ovejita  
Su lana era blanca como nieve  
Y por todas partes que María fué  
La ovejita era seguro de ir.

Other constructions were used, especially for that difficult last line. For example:

El cordero era cierto a ir.

and

El cordero fué tras ella.

This girl, although she has several evident mistakes, has produced something that reads smoothly and pleasingly.

Pequeño niño azul  
Viene soplar su cuerno  
Las ovejas estan en el prado  
Y las vacas estan en el grano.

Of two girls who tried "Baa, Baa, Black Sheep" the better produced this:

Bala, Bala, oveja negro  
Tiene Vd. algo lana  
Si señor, si señor  
Tres sacos llenos de lana.

Uno para el señor  
Uno para la senora  
Uno para el muchacho pequeño  
Que vive en la callejuela.

A few more examples may be interesting.

Tomasito, Tomasito el hijo del flautero  
Robó un cochino y huyó  
El cochino escapa y comió un ganso  
Y Tomasito fué puesto en la cárcel.

Boga, boga, boga su bote  
Dócilmente abajo la corriente,



Jovialmente, jovialmente, jovialmente,  
jovialmente  
La vida es pero un sueño.

El que nunca aprende su A, B, C,  
Para siempre será un asno;  
Pero el que se inclina a sus libros,  
Pronto hallará un tesoro de oro.

The most original one is this, patterned after "Now I Lay Me Down to Sleep" and dedicated to two boys of the class:

Ahora yo me pongo abajo para dormir  
Suplico que el Senor Luckey se mantiene silencio  
Pero si él me llama antes que me despierto  
¿Qué hago yo por amor de la bondad?

Many other well-known rhymes were paraphrased. The students' work, although certainly containing many errors, was apparently spontaneous. The difficulty which has seemed to the writer the greatest hindrance to effective composition work both in English and in foreign languages—that of having nothing to write, or nothing which the student really wants to write—gave no trouble. Some creative spark was apparent in almost every student. May it be insisted that the assignment was one of composition, not of translation; for the rhyme each student used was an integral part of his experience, and he was trying to put it into written form. He knew the rhyme in English; the challenge to express it in another language made Spanish a welcome tool in his hands.

---

## Correspondence

---

To the Editor of the *Modern Language Journal*:

In a recent number of the *Modern Language Journal* (October 1938), under the article "Voices from the Past," the writer alluded to says: "We are still in many ways a sectional people. As modern language teachers we have another and special difficulty. We are apt to split into fractional groups, and are often determined to live and die as French, German, or Spanish instructors. . . . At no time in the history of our country have such heavy responsibilities rested upon the teachers of modern languages, and at no time was the call for unity greater. . . ."

These few lines, taken from an article written twenty years ago, could also have been written to-day, for we are living again through such difficult times. Some of us have understood these trying times and are doing our bit toward bringing about this unity. With this aim in view, the National Collegiate Foreign Language Honor Society was organized under the name Alpha Mu Gamma, some four years ago, for the purpose of bringing all foreign languages taught in the United States under one honor society. The

real aim of this honor society is not only to recognize achievement in the field of foreign languages, but also to foster a sympathetic understanding of other peoples.

While existing honor societies of foreign languages, whether they be French, or German, or Spanish, do also stimulate a desire for linguistic attainment, they unfortunately tend toward separatism. Alpha Mu Gamma tries to remedy this state of things by grouping all these different languages under one chapter bringing about a healthy cooperation in our field of foreign languages. All these different nations, whose language we are studying in the United States, have contributed something toward the making of this great nation. Let us help the world peace by bringing these languages together instead of keeping them separate. As the national president of this Alpha Mu Gamma foreign language honor society, I will be glad to give further information to any college or university teacher about it.

FERNAND CATTELAINE

*Arizona State Teachers College*

To the Editor of the *Modern Language Journal*:

At a meeting of Zone delegates of the New York State Federation of Modern Language Teachers, held October 15, 1938, at North High School, Syracuse, the following officers were elected: President: Dr. George H. R. O'Donnell, Russell Sage College, Troy; First Vice-President: George H. Daniels, North High School, Syracuse; Second Vice-President: M. Blanche Kelly, East High School, Rochester; Secretary-Treasurer: Francis M. Sweet, South Park High School, Buffalo. *Directors*: Ferdinand F. DiBartolo Hutchinson H. S., Buffalo; Elsa Brookfield, Elmira Free Academy, Elmira; Louis Nesbit, Senior H. S., Cortland; Dr. Leo L. Rockwell, Colgate University, Hamilton and John F. Ringwald, Central H. S., Valley Stream, L.I. *State representative to the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers*: Dr. Charles Holzwarth, West H. S., Rochester.

The new officers will soon undertake the drafting of a new constitution.

Dr. O'Donnell made a preliminary report of the work being done by the Federation committee which is studying the Modern Language situation in the State.

The Modern Language teachers of the Central Zone voted to organize a Modern Language Section in their zone. Miss Leah Huckans of Nottingham High School, Syracuse, was elected Zone Chairman.

FRANCIS M. SWEET, *Secretary-Treasurer*.

---

## • Meetings of Associations •

---

### ANNUAL MEETING OF THE NEW YORK STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, WESTERN ZONE

THE Modern Language section of the Western Zone of the New York State Teachers' Association held its annual meeting in Lafayette High School, Buffalo, October 28, 1938. Dr. Louis A. Pingitore, Canisius College, Buffalo, presided.

A letter from Dr. Roy Mosher, State Supervisor of Modern Languages, was read to the two hundred teachers present. He reported on the quality of language instruction in the State, mentioning especially the marked improvement in the teaching of "civilization," and the increased interest of students in this phase of their language study. Reference was made also to the successful introduction of Hebrew in New York City and of Swedish in the schools of Jamestown. Because Dr. Mosher could not be present at this meeting, it was decided to invite him to meet the teachers of this Zone sometime during the winter.

Mr. Ferdinand F. DiBartolo, Business Manager of the *Modern Language Journal*, reporting on the Modern Language meeting in Chicago, showed how the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers is vigorously supporting the cause of language teaching in the United States, and urged the support of all language teachers in its work.

At a round-table discussion, various ideas were exchanged on the subject of strengthening the position of languages in the State. The section went on record as favoring the formation of a committee to establish a Modern Language radio program, under the patronage of the Modern Language teachers of the Zone.

In the afternoon, the Modern Language teachers met in joint session with the Classical section to hear an address by Dr. A. R. Brubacher, President of New York State College for Teachers, Albany. The subject of his address was: "The Position of the Classical and Modern Foreign Languages in the High School of Tomorrow." He deplored the fallacious reasoning of those language opponents who, because some pupils can get no cultural or disciplinary value from languages, condemn all language for all pupils.

FRANCIS M. SWEET,  
*Acting Zone Secretary.*

---

## • "What Others Say—" •

---

### FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES\*

JAMES B. THARP

IN some respects foreign language study plays a dual rôle in school life. It may be looked upon as an art, the possession of which as a performer brings its own satisfaction, its own appreciations of value, its own prestige in the respect of others. Like other arts, fine and applied, the greater the skill of performance, the greater the degree of appreciation. For most arts function in terms of feeling. A great musician probably derives much more from the concert of a virtuoso than does a beginner just learning to draw a bow. The fact that the field of music has found a way to make itself valid socially to the masses who can never hope to be performers opens a new vista to the foreign languages. We must seek to develop an "appreciation" level to the

\* From *The Educational Record*, October, 1938, pp. 456 ff.

hordes of non-performers, or be content with the rich appreciation of a gifted few who pursue the subject to the level of art.

But foreign language study can maintain its kinship, or even family membership, as a social science. When the American and Canadian Committee on Modern Foreign Languages was investigating the status of foreign language study in America, at least a third of the aims found to be present in various combinations in the teaching of a representative group of the nation's language teachers were social in intent and implication. It has not required or should not require the trend toward *integration* for the social studies teacher to see in the nearby foreign language class a means for a valuable enrichment to the material he is trying to teach. There at hand is a vicarious trip abroad where geography, art, and architecture are being observed. There is a situation where healthy attitudes toward other social and racial groups are being built. Usually the foreign language teacher has been privileged to dig deeper into this particular civilization than has the social studies teacher, who must know something of many civilizations. At a meeting sponsored by the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers in St. Louis in 1936 the integration of foreign languages with other subjects was studied rather intensively. At the 1937 meeting in Buffalo of the National Council of English Teachers, a section was devoted to the topic of integration with foreign languages. Many schools are experimenting with the possibility, notably a group in California to which I shall refer below.

We are strongly warned by Lundeberg<sup>1</sup> of the danger of becoming propagandists, especially when we become apologists for the foreign civilization, telling only its virtues and none of its faults. We are brought sharply to task and warned to cut out dead wood and to vitalize our cultural offerings into the pattern of the new socialized concept of education. The social studies are organized to demand whole truths, whether or not it is possible or deemed wise to admit the whole truth to the classroom.

I would like to cite much evidence that the foreign languages are sincere in their social aims; are sincere in the very collaboration expressed in their 1938 joint meeting at Atlantic City with the National Council of Social Studies.<sup>2</sup> Only a few items are possible here and I cite them as representative of certain tendencies that have yet to be proved. It will not lessen their importance to say that the teaching profession is awaiting quantitative evidence of their validity.

The General Education Board is financing a three-year study at Stanford University called the Stanford Language Arts Investigation. That this investigation will give strong attention to social values is shown by its first publication, entitled *A Cultural Basis for the Language Arts*.<sup>3</sup> In one article therein Kaulfers suggests some "outcomes contributive to the realization of student goals associated with understanding, adjusting to, and co-operatively improving the social environment." Some of these are:

1. A realization of the essential oneness of human nature.
2. Greater open-mindedness and tolerance in human relationships whether personal or national.
3. The development of a spirit of internationalism and worldmindedness through exposure to foreign cultures.
4. A more sympathetic understanding and fairer treatment of fellow-students and fellow-citizens of foreign birth or background.
5. The development of a more genuine patriotism through a comparison of American ideals and institutions with those of foreign peoples.
6. An appreciation of the foreign origins of our national culture in laws and property rights, customs, traditions, arts, and language.

<sup>1</sup> Olav K. Lundeberg, "Our Obsolete Cultural Content Material," *Hispania*, xx (Oct. 1937), 221-225.

<sup>2</sup> The stenographic proceedings of the panel discussion among teachers representing both groups is available in mimeograph form; send 50 cents to the author of this article.

<sup>3</sup> W. V. Kaulfers and H. D. Roberts (Stanford University Press, 1937). See Kaulfers' "Outcomes as Objectives" reprinted from *The French Review*, ix (Feb. 1936), 224-230.

7. Worthy ideals for the motivation of personal morality and ethical conduct derived from the best in the literature, philosophy, and customs of foreign peoples.

8. A philosophy of life capitalizing the best offerings in the ideals, customs, and literature of foreign peoples.

9. Increased social literacy through ability to communicate in the foreign tongue.

10. Pleasure in the society of educated people, whether native or foreign, and a feeling of "at-homeness" in their presence.

11. An appreciation of foreign languages as cultural media of communication rather than as inferior lingoos.

12. The deflation of an ignorant and supercilious egotism, whether provincial or national.<sup>4</sup>

In a more recent paper, Kaulfers makes a strong plea for content that is socially significant in all stages of the foreign language course.<sup>5</sup> Even while basic language skills that will permit the reception of ever higher levels of socially significant content are being developed, a start toward social aims should be made with content staged within the range of the maturity of the learners. Kaulfers discounts mere Baedekers of disconnected facts about a foreign country that would not be read in English by sixth-grade children, but he calls for a wide range of interesting materials, carefully graded into levels of vocabulary and grammatical increments, told in a way to catch adolescent interests. He proposes an outline of topics that would be only one of many possible avenues of approach:

First semester (Exploratory Preview): *The Spirit of France in America* (a survey of French influence in American life and culture)

Second semester (Orientation Survey): A. *The French People in World Culture*; B. *France as a Field of Foreign Travel* (places of cultural interest)

Third semester and beyond: *Literature in French* (differentiated reading along lines of individual interests—cultural and professional)

In striking similarity to this pattern for a gradual expansion of content is the plan proposed by a writer on the social studies, Arthur H. Moehlman.<sup>6</sup> Moehlman proposes a six-year plan which expands in widening circles from the immediate home-life of the pupil, to his national life, and on to include other regions and peoples. Moehlman points out that aims and plans are worth little without proper evaluation. Factual tests of objective nature are available, but we are just now beginning to develop tests on attitudes, social adjustment, creativeness, a functional social philosophy, and on similar experiences hitherto thought unmeasurable.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>5</sup> "A Program for the Realization of the Cultural Objectives in the Teaching of French," a paper read at the annual meeting of the American Association of Teachers of French at Chicago, December 30, 1937; published in *The French Review*, xi (May 1938), 463-470.

<sup>6</sup> "The Social Studies and the Cultural Lag," *Educational Method*, xvi (Dec. 1936), 99-104.

<sup>7</sup> Louis Rath, "Basis for Comprehensive Evaluation," *Educational Research Bulletin*, xv (Nov. 11, 1936), 220-224. See also the evaluation studies reported by J. C. Greenup and David Segel, "An Experimental Study of the Relation between Method and Outcomes in Spanish Instruction," *Modern Language Journal*, xiv (Dec. 1929), 208-212; and that of J. Wayne Wrightstone, "An Appraisal of Newer Practices in Teaching French," *ibid.*, xix (Feb. 1935), 369-374.

---

## • Notes and News •

---

### JOURNAL ARTICLES NOTICED IN *HISPANIA*

FOUR recent articles published in the *Journal*: Peter Sammartino, "A Foreign Language Achievement Scale" (March, 1938); E. F. Engel, "Teaching of Modern Languages in Germany" (February, 1938); Sarah Michie, "General Language for the Eighth Grade" (February, 1938); and Emma R. E. Tallent, "Three Coefficients of Correlation" (May, 1938)—are noticed in the October issue of *Hispānia*, p. 214 ff.

### EXTENSION COURSES FOR LANGUAGE TEACHERS

EXTENSION courses that enable teachers of language to broaden their preparation are among a large number listed for home study in new publications of the University of Wisconsin. Recognizing that teachers cannot afford to remain static in their profession, but must keep abreast of the newer demands in teaching, the Extension Division at Madison has developed correspondence courses to fit the needs of teachers of French, Spanish, German, Latin, and Greek. In each of these fields it offers elementary and survey courses and more advanced courses in literature, each supplying special training of positive value in teaching.

Such studies are taken by teachers for undergraduate credit, for college or more advanced degrees, or for review as an aid to more effective teaching. Wisconsin's correspondence-study credits are accepted by institutions throughout the country.

Suggestive of the courses for such purposes are Modern French Dramatists, Modern French Novelists, General Survey of French Literature, Survey of Spanish Literature, Don Quijote, The Teaching of German in Elementary Schools, The Teaching of German (in secondary schools or colleges), German Composition and Conversation (for grammar review or practice in composition), Schiller and Goethe, Modern German Drama, Contemporary German Literature, Elementary Greek (for teachers of Latin, of English, and of the sciences), Classical Mythology in Literature, Ancient Classical Drama in English, Horace, Odes, and others of similar scope.

The Extension Division will upon request send catalogues and special information to students in any state.

---

## • Reviews •

---

ESPINOSA, AURELIO M., *España. Lecciones elementales sobre la historia de la civilización española*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1937. Price, \$.30.

This book belongs to Grade III of the Oxford Rapid-Reading Spanish Texts, in which there are no restrictions of word frequency. It would be well fitted for about fourth-semester high school or third semester college Spanish, for which it is recommended. It is divided into seventeen chapters, with twenty to twenty-four questions in Spanish on each one. The vocabulary, of about sixteen hundred words, though hard to read because of the smallness of the type, is carefully made and thoroughly satisfactory.

Professor Espinosa has managed in less than twenty-five pages of text to present a maximum of information with regard to Spanish history, literature, architecture, painting and music, presented in straight-forward and unadorned fashion. Even if the student forgets some



of the numerous names presented in such small compass, he will retain something of value. The last chapter, an excellent suggestive summary of Spain's achievements, ends with the words: "... como ... Don Quijote ... España se levantará de nuevo para emprender otra vez el camino de sus sueños hacia un porvenir de justicia y de paz." The natural comment is "¡Ojalá!"

Whether it is a matter of taste or not, it seems unfortunate to me that Jaime Balmes should receive much more attention than Luis Vives; that Ricardo Leon should be exalted and Valle-Inclán not even mentioned; and most regrettable of all that the *Celestina* is conspicuous by its complete omission.

NICHOLSON B. ADAMS

University of North Carolina,  
Chapel Hill, North Carolina

MAURICE, WILLIAM. *The Spirit of a Language; A Psycho-Linguistic Investigation by way of Comparison of Various Examples Taken from the English and German Languages*. Leipzig: Paul Hempel, 1936.

Page 4: "When now we consider, in addition to all such and similar differentiation, that is imposed by disparity of national life in all its aspects and the inheritance of countless centuries, it will be evident not only that peoples of different nations must think diversely, that is, must give a slightly different interpretation to all material offered in sense perception, but that the same must hold good in individual minds also, since the experience and interpretative power of no two human beings can ever be precisely alike. Thus, for example, the notion COAL though sufficiently distinguished from all others for practical purposes, yet corresponds to quite distinct mental images in the mind of the dealer, of the housewife, of the miner, of the child, and of the scientist." There are illustrative cases from English and German. A timely topic, in the opinion of the reviewer; the wide understanding of its implications (inadequately treated by Maurice) would help decrease international misunderstandings.

GEORGE KINGSLEY ZIPP

Harvard University,  
Cambridge, Massachusetts

ZWIRNER, E. and ZWIRNER, K. *Phonometrische Forschungen*, Berlin: Metten, 1936. Reihe A: *Grundfragen der Phonometrie*, xii, 140. Reihe B: *Textliste neuhochdeutscher Vorlesesprache schlesischer Färbung*, viii, 100.

In *Grundfragen* etc. the authors marshal and to a considerable extent discuss the problems inherent in the isolation, classification, and quantification of phonetic units of speech, against the background both of Kantian and post-Kantian phenomenology and of the history of the science of phonetics. Considering the phonetic unit from the viewpoints of linguistics, psychology, physiology, and acoustics, the authors note inadequacies in the previous phonetic work in these fields, and themselves advance (Chap. 8) their *phonometric method*, which is essentially: (1) phonographic recording of meaningful connected speech; (2) the judgment of expert native listeners to the recording whether in their experience with the language, the occurring speech-units are intended to represent one norm or another, degrees of agreement among the listeners being noted; (3) the physical measurement of the record to determine significant differences of sounds judged the same (e.g., actual differences in length of vowels); (4) the formulation of variations in terms of the normal curve of distribution (pp. 112-113). In short, the Zwirners propose analyzing phonetic manifestations with all available empirical methods including that of statistical analysis of the distribution of variations, seeing in *Phonometry* a correspondence with Quetelet's *Anthropometry*. In the opinion of the reviewer this is a fundamental treatise on the history of phonetic problems and on methodology in phonetics.

In *Textliste* etc. is a running text of 2,000 phonetic units, analyzed phonometrically (see above) in respect to many essential features (e.g., quantity of vowels and syllabic consonants, duration, tone, etc.). In the opinion of the reviewer, this study represents perfection in phonetic transcription, as far as our present knowledge admits.

GEORGE KINGSLEY ZIPP

Harvard University,  
Cambridge, Massachusetts

SAMMARTINO, PETER AND MOSHER, ROY E., *Grammaire Simple et Lectures Faciles*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1938. Cloth, Price, \$1.40.

Here is a true book for beginners, especially for those beginners who find language study difficult. I believe that both students and teachers will find enjoyment as they progress through the presentation exercises and reviews of this book. They will probably find that the fundamentals will be progressively understood through the terms and will be retained as a whole at the end. The vocabularies are sufficiently varied to retain interest and conducive to wider conversational practice over a broadening list of topics. I like particularly the fables in prose which can serve as a good introduction to La Fontaine. I also believe in the use of the familiar conversational expressions as "dis donc!" "tiens!" "voyons!" etc.

The reading matter is well suited to the type of pupil the book is intended for and gives good training in reading. The selections are in units that can be easily assimilated and are graded as to difficulty.

The cultural material fits admirably the modern needs of civilization study and is presented in a thought-provoking and understandable manner. The material is presented in a consistent manner throughout the book and whatever facts are necessary are given in a digestible form.

The song selections are mostly all familiar. The first seven as traditional songs will interest beginning pupils; the second set of songs is more to my liking and I wish there was more of *Carmen* and *Faust*, and perhaps a few more songs like Gounod's "Dormez Ma Belle" and Chaminade's "Ouvre tes Yeux bleus." Of course I realize the need of introducing the simpler songs first and do not doubt that the right teachers will arouse considerable response to all of them. There is a song the boys used to sing in my school days in Paris which began, "Chantons, amis, ce beau pays de France, Ce doux pays qui nous donna le jour." It had a fine swing to it and I wish it had been used in the place of "Ma Normandie."

From the physical point of view the print is clear and legible even to the small type on p. 47. The typography is attractive throughout. The illustrations are attractive for the general reading selections but I think that photographs should have been used for the illustrations of historical places, monuments or persons, and especially for the architectural details which should be accurately represented. A little more care in this direction would have added greatly to the general attractiveness of this very excellent and handsome book.

The authors should be congratulated on a book that may solve many of our language problems.

PHILIP P. BRANT

Jamaica High School,  
Jamaica, Long Island

PECK, ANNE MERRIMAN, AND MÉRAS, EDMOND A., *Spain in Europe and America*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1937. Cloth. Illustrated. Price, \$1.00.

Whatever may be the ultimate judgment on the recommendations for modern language teaching embodied in the now-famous Coleman report, one cannot but commend every effort that, following its directions, aims to bring the culture of Europe within the grasp and under-

standing of American students. Such an effort Miss Peck and Mr. Méras have made, and their book thus stands unique in the long series of this country's pedagogical publications in the Spanish field. For while many elementary books have incorporated paragraphs and even short chapters of miscellaneous and fragmentary information on Spain and Latin America, and at least one excellent little book has appeared in Spanish (Professor Anna Krause's *España y la cultura española*, Heath, 1929), the Peck-Méras volume is the first to present the entire panorama of Hispanic civilization on both sides of the Atlantic, in English, and especially for young American students. The appearance of any pioneering work is an important event, and this book, at present unrivalled, should prove a useful instrument in our school and college instruction.

The material, for the most part, is factual, grouped around significant topics, and presented along conventional historical lines. Although four of the sixteen chapters are devoted to Spanish America—conquest, empire, contemporary characteristics, and artistic activities, Spain herself remains, as she should, the heart of the book. The opening chapters deal with her geography; her ancient, medieval, and modern history; the physical, economic, social and human characteristics of her many diverse regions. The three chapters which discuss the creative arts treat not only the major fields of architecture, painting, sculpture, music, and the dance, and literature, but also the minor arts of wood carving, iron work, weaving and lace making, gold and silver work, pottery and tile work which have flourished so luxuriantly in Spain. The last chapters are bravely devoted in the main to the modern and contemporary developments in science, education, and social and political affairs. The book is equipped with an index, useful exercises for each chapter and, by way of bibliography, a regrettable "list of good books about Spain," of at least doubtful utility and very questionable selection, notably the inadequate group of three items under "Literature" (cf., e.g., Angel Flores, *Spanish Literature in English Translation*, New York, 1926).

Perhaps the most attractive single feature is the wealth of picturesque detail. In presenting such a vast amount of cultural material relating to Spanish clothes and customs, legends, and folklore, historical events and contemporary ideas and manners, the authors have often vivified the simple fact with a memorable and explanatory anecdote or description. Included, to mention just a few, are the story of King Roderick and Count Julian's daughter (pp. 13-14); the legendary explanation of Santiago, the *conchas*, the star, the city named for him and the *camino francés* that led all Europe to his shrine; an account of the great Christian victory at Las Navas de Tolosa (p. 25); explanations of the naming of the Río de la Plata (p. 47), our state of Florida (p. 50), the Philippines (p. 53); the colorful and exciting story of the conquest of Aztec Mexico by Cortés (pp. 55-60). Two entire chapters (vii, *Spanish People at Home*; and viii, *Holidays, Sports, and Fiestas*) are given over almost entirely to the picturesque in contemporary life, stressing perhaps too much and with resultant distortion the *España de pandereta*, the superficial *España romántica* of over a century of foreign tourists in Spain. A number of maps and drawings collaborate in this picturesque presentation.

In several other respects the book leaves something to be desired. Its errors and deficiencies—some certainly due to haste and carelessness, qualities particularly censurable in a book of this kind—lead one to hope, while lauding this initial effort, for a speedy new edition or a prompt successor. Some of the chronological errors are particularly lamentable. For example, Portuguese independence, established in 1640, is attributed to the eighteenth century War of the Spanish Succession (p. 43). And this century of *buen gusto* and neoclassic restraint is mistakenly credited with Churriguera and his and his followers' baroque excesses (p. 174), created in the Hapsburg seventeenth and derived culturally from the very years that saw Calderón's latest dramas and *autos sacramentales*. The chapter on Spanish literature is quite inadequate. When it is not jejune, it is misleading in its critical estimates and summaries and inexcusably inaccurate in names and titles: e.g., Juan Valera is called de Valera (p. 207), Ramón Gómez de la Serna loses the Gómez (p. 213), the final-s of *Tirano Banderas* is dropped (p. 210), and *La Hermana San Sulpicio*, so well known to students here, is given another ubiquitous *de* (p. 208). Similarly, reference is made elsewhere to the "Residencia de las Señori-

tas" and the Spanish Parliament (Cortes) is regularly spelled as if it were the famous conquistador. The reviewer cannot refrain finally from calling attention to what seems to him the book's most serious defect, namely: a dull, pedestrian style, which, through a praiseworthy desire for simplicity and elementary clarity, has become at times insipid and childish. Even at the risk of offering an unfair, subjective and highly personal criticism, the reviewer has not found that young students are more insensitive than adults to wooden, graceless, uninspired writing. They dislike being written down to as much as any one else, and they are easily repelled from inherently interesting material by deficiencies in the media of expression (cf., especially, pp. 37, 41-43, 177).

Rarely can one take issue seriously with what Miss Peck and Mr. Méras say. They are dealing with facts or generally accepted interpretations and not with theories. Perhaps this, in itself, is unfortunate, since contradictions (suggested only once, p. 119) and controversies are fundamental in Spanish character and Spanish history (cf., e.g., Fidelino de Figueiredo, *Las dos Españas*, [Santiago], 1933). However, if the authors have failed to convey the simple, primitive, savage quality, so admirably elucidated by Havelock Ellis, they have captured, and for the most part interpreted soundly, the variety, isolation, individuality, proud dignity, and stoicism of the Spanish people through the centuries. Particularly is their excellent treatment of the present situation (last chapter, especially) a model, for a book of this kind, of courage, honesty, and clear, calm sanity of expression. Impartiality is preserved, but there is no hesitation in referring bluntly to the "barbaric siege" (p. 106) of Madrid and in lamenting the interruption, if not the destruction, of the idealistic educational program. The present struggle is viewed as the issue between a persistent feudalism and the ideals of a modern state. There is much truth in this contrast, yet it must already be evident that Franco's Nationalist Spain, independent or not of foreign Fascist allies, represents rather a modern form of sixteenth-century totalitarianism, begun by the centralizing fanaticism of Isabel la católica, won definitively by Carlos V at Villalar and sealed by Philip II as irrevocably as the royal crypts in his monumental pile at the Escorial.

WILLIAM H. SHOEMAKER

*The University of Kansas*  
Lawrence, Kansas

BAGLEY, CHARLES R., *An Introduction to French Literature of the Seventeenth Century*, New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937. Cloth, Price, \$2.50.

The author asserts in his preface that he has not been successful in interesting his students in the seventeenth century by the usual procedure of lectures, assigned readings, and class study of masterpieces. The standard histories of literature were too advanced, outlines too condensed, and anthologies left too much work for the instructor. This dissatisfaction led him to develop a textbook which is assuredly different from the others now available. Of these we mention three outstanding ones with some indication of their contents for purposes of comparison with the Bagley volume.

1. The Princeton University Press anthology of the Seventeenth Century—large octavo—398 pages of running text with brief biographical and explanatory notes in English—arrangement chronological, no drama, but samplings from many minor authors.

2. Schinz and King (Holt)—small octavo—407 pages of text, selective vocabulary of 13 pages—general introduction, biographical and critical résumés, explanatory footnotes all in French—brief bibliographies—no drama, grouping mainly chronological, three women authors at end, fair sprinkling of minor authors.

3. Peyre and Grant (Heath)—medium solid page octavo—336 pages of text, 15 pages of vocabulary—brief critical and biographical introductions in French, textual notes in English—fair bibliographies—no drama, grouping chronological with very few minor authors.

The essential characteristic of Bagley's *Introduction* is that the critical and biographical materials in English are very extensive and easily replace the class lectures which have to supplement the preliminary statements before authors in the above-mentioned volumes. The method of presentation as well as the grouping of authors is novel. In addition the dramatists are included. The reviewer admits that he is impressed with the sound pedagogical planning of the whole volume, for the editor's *idée fixe*, that of a solid introduction to this period of literature, is carried out with spirit and wisdom.

Mr. Bagley does not open his book with author no. 1, who in most cases is the straight-laced Malherbe. Here Chapter I, in English, is entitled "The Background of the Seventeenth Century in France" and gives a clear account of political, economical, and social conditions, of the salons, the Academy, and the Quarrel of Ancients and Moderns, even of Fine Arts throughout the century. These twenty-six pages of organized introductory material are more effective for the student than the casual professorial lectures. Mr. Bagley does not attempt to present his own research, he merely arranges in sound teachable fashion the well-known facts of the *Age d'Or*. This English lecture is followed by a working bibliography of all matters presented in the chapter; the reviewer would consider the five pages of selected titles of books one of the most useful and suggestive tools furnished. Those most accessible and practical for undergraduates are marked with an asterisk. It is only now that the French texts are offered in this chapter, mainly in this case from contemporary memoirs, Retz, Richelieu, St. Simon, Tallemant, Somaize, and even Voltaire and Taine. We have gone into some length in discussing this opening chapter because the other sections are fashioned on the same last, a lecture introduction, a strong bibliography, and the *morceaux choisis* from the appropriate authors. There is a clear arrangement by *genre* rather than by chronology—with a chapter grouping on literary criticism (Malherbe and Boileau), on philosophy (Descartes and Pascal), on the drama, on fables, on letters and memoirs, on the moralists, and finally, on religious eloquence (Bossuet and Fénelon). This seems a more striking and logical arrangement of the great writers than the usual chronological presentation.

To give the literary sequence of this period even better consistency and relationship, Bagley has two chapters (II, and XII) which form a literary entry and exit for this gallery of authors. In the first of these, he writes a general sketch of seventeenth-century literature which takes up the *genres* and carries each one briefly through its development. All of our great authors are thus early in the course introduced to readers and associated in their minds. These fifteen pages of presentation are as clear a preliminary view of the literary century as could be devised. The final exit from the century is found in Chapter XII, a nine-page retrospect now based on authors and societies studied, ranging succinctly each in proper array and balance and leading to a desire in the student to read more of the writers and their works. This envoi is a sound pedagogical résumé.

The reviewer has read most of these English lectures and finds that they contain, well arrayed and adequately told in interesting style, the well-attested facts concerning the great authors, their lives, their works, their place in literature. The students are given in handy printed form the material usually handed out in lectures. No quarrel can be picked with the editor, for he merely reports what critics have said and repeated and he is clearly up to date and punctilious even in the matter of presenting a Mme. de Maintenon somewhat cleared of St. Simon's aspersions. Anecdotes are included to illustrate character as well as frequent citation from contemporaries *à la Vial et Denise*. If one is tempted to regret that these excellent lectures are not in French, one has to remember the editor's purpose of presenting in a scholarly and acceptable way an adequate literary *introduction* to the French classics. His method is leisurely, for he takes plenty of space to make the authors live and work before producing samples of their writing. Even among these, he interpolates related contemporary comment (page 99, Boileau's opinion of Malherbe, under Malherbe; or, page 205, Balzac on Corneille, under Corneille). Other anthologies contain these same selections but under their respective authors. Bagley emphasizes not so much authors as literary *genres* and thus inserts



several pages from La Bruyère (pages 258 to 260) under Racine, the famous comparison between the two classic writers of tragedy. There is an air of appropriateness and flexibility about such a presentation that, to this reviewer, seems more sound and effective than the usual rigid chronological sequence by authors. The bibliographical references to Ste. Beuve are precise and the great critic could easily be summoned to contribute his insight on this century.

On the score of literary discussion and bibliographical indications this text should be rated very high, but one consequence in a book of limited size must be considered. More than half the available space is given over to the critical apparatus, so that of the literature itself only meager samplings can be offered, especially when 138 pages are devoted to the dramatists who have been excluded from previous anthologies. The fifth *Lettre Provinciale* usually given entire is here limited to an extract of four pages. Perrault's contribution to the Querelle (*Siècle de Louis le Grand* and the *Parallèles*) does not figure in the texts at all. One could go through the great authors and indicate the forced omission of many famous pages. The reviewer admits the vitality and strength of the critical materials but must report the consequent effect upon the *morceaux choisis*. The editor had his grave problem of space and chose to answer it in his way. It is surprising that he was able to include so many of the secondary authors. The omission of the dramatists would have eased the situation, but would have been a ludicrous solution for this book in view of its purpose. Besides, the critical studies of the great trio are superb, fine, full treatments including even lengthy résumés of their greatest plays. Clearly, they had to take their proper rank with the other great of the century. The omission of the fifty-four pages of dramatic samplings might have been a less drastic solution to a problem fairly insoluble, since the plays, of all these works, are sure to be read entire in a seventeenth-century course. A larger book or a page arranged in double columns like those of our usual omnibus anthologies in English or American literature would have been a costly, venturesome, yet possible practical, solution.

In any case, this textbook is a striking and notable addition to the field. It should appeal to the average college classes making contact for the first time with the great classics and could easily be covered in a semester. Its full critical and bibliographical information should also be useful in more advanced groups where entire works can be read and the critics here listed consulted. It is this possibility that makes the reviewer choose it for a class guide in a course conducted in French. The full introductions will enable a teacher to give more time to textual interpretation based on complete works found on reserve shelves or available in such series as the *Classiques Larousse* or the Hatier list. Mr. Bagley himself offers the suggestion of a year course based on the seventeenth century, with his *Introduction* for class use during the first semester, and for review and guidance to a choice of complete works during the second semester. To this the reviewer adds that the extensive bibliographies might even encourage concentrated study of critics as well as works all grouped about one author. The book therefore is flexible enough to meet the needs of an introductory experience and yet can serve the demands of a more advanced type of work.

HARRY KURZ

University of Nebraska,  
Lincoln, Nebraska

GULLETTE, CAMERON C., AND KEATING, CLARK, *Learning a Modern Language. Suggestions for Students*. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company. Paper. Price, 15 cents.

This pamphlet contains suggestions concerning the value of each of the four languages, French, German, Spanish, Italian; the proper attitude for one to adopt on entering modern language study, the necessity of thoroughness in study, the proper objectives, with stress on reading ability. Helpful hints are given also on how to study and to review, also lists of useful printed helps of various kinds with hints as to their uses.



The partial list of contents is: Which Language? Learn one Language Well. Why Study Grammar? Some Terms used in Grammar. Immediate Objectives. How to Study Vocabulary? Methods of Studying Vocabulary. How to Study a Grammar Lesson? Methods of Review. Extra Helps.

The suggestions are technically correct and may be followed with confidence.

C. H. HANDSCHIN

*Miami University,  
Oxford, Ohio*

COLEMAN, ALGERNON, *An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching, 1932-1937*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938. Price, \$4.50.

This bibliography continues the author's *Analytic Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching, 1927-32*, which continued Buchanan and McPhee's *Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology*, publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, volume 8. The latter lists the relevant works since the inception of modern language study. Incidentally, we may state that for the teacher in service, "The Annual Bibliography of works on Modern Language Teaching" which has appeared in the May number of the *Modern Language Journal* since 1921 serves very well. This bibliography continues Handschin's original bibliography published in his *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States*. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, \$3, 1913, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Coleman's book is arranged alphabetically under the following great headings which again contain each numerous subheads: History and Survey; Trends in Modern Language Teaching; Psychology of Foreign Language Teaching; Aims, Materials and Method; Curricula and Syllabi; Examinations and Tests; Transfer of Training; Training of Teachers; Foreign Language Teaching Abroad; Publications of the Committee on Modern Languages; Varia. The bibliography is meant to be exhaustive and is well-nigh so. Absolute inclusiveness is next to impossible. It is, together with its predecessors, the standard work on modern language bibliography. The work has been done carefully and is, therefore, eminently valuable.

Naturally, it could not cover all domains of modern language bibliography. It is not, for instance, a bibliography of materials. It covers the treatises in *realia* but does not undertake to give a bibliography of the *realia*.

The annotations are full and carefully done, so that one gets a good idea of the contents of each treatise. The University of Chicago Press has put us under obligation for the generous amount of space allowed so that this became possible.

If there is one thing that one may criticise in the book, it is the fact that the author tends strongly to endorse treatises which coincide with his own views and sometimes to undervalue others. This is natural, and does occur in spite of all our scientific objectivity. Only some authors are more, some less, successful in ingratiating their own views and convictions.

C. H. HANDSCHIN

*Miami University,  
Oxford, Ohio*

LIPSKY, ABRAM, AND REIFLER, ELISABETH B., *Easy German*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1938. Cloth. Illustrated. Price, Book One, \$1.60. Book Two, \$1.64.

This two-volume series for German courses in junior and senior high schools contains in addition to the grammar lessons a variety of worth-while material not always found in beginning books. Despite the varied content, the text is not at all awkward to use, for the authors have skillfully correlated all parts.

Each lesson presents one grammatical element and is divided into two parts: Grammatical Assignment, beginning with sentences illustrating the grammar and followed by a variety of short, excellent exercises—question-and-answer, completion, substitution, etc.; Reading Assignment, consisting of familiar fables, anecdotes, and short stories with several comprehension-testing exercises. Grammatical notes in simple, clear English explain the point in question, and proverbs, vocabulary, and idioms complete each lesson. For teachers who use formal composition, supplementary exercises embracing thirty-five sets of English to German sentences are provided together with an English-German vocabulary.

Forty-eight extensive reading selections are supplied to further the development of the ability to read with comprehension. Gradually increasing in length and difficulty, they are to be read, as suggested, only after certain language lessons have been covered. Footnotes and a vocabulary with each selection facilitate the student's reading, and his understanding can be checked by the German questions.

Civilization Material (*Kulturkunde*), given in English in Book One and in German in Book Two, presents in concise form interesting sketches of German geography, art, music, literature and science. Exercises covering these readings might be omitted in a beginning text.

The exercises for review of idioms are noteworthy. Realizing that the average student can master such expressions only by repetition and drill, the authors have included sets of German and English sentences illustrating the idioms found in the text.

Eight popular German songs with music; a reference appendix containing lists of classroom and grammatical expressions, an analysis of German pronunciation, and a grammar appendix; and two vocabularies, a German-English vocabulary covering the thirty-five language assignments and the English-German vocabulary mentioned above, complete the text. Not to be overlooked are the many fine drawings and photographs which enhance the attractiveness of the book and can be used for oral discussions.

Book Two, for second year senior high school, begins with four thorough review lessons on Book One and is indeed "closely correlated in subject matter, vocabulary and development with Book One." The various parts of Book Two are presented in the same manner and sequence as in Book One.

*Easy German*, because of the variety and quantity of reading material presented and because of the careful planning and integration of all parts, attains the authors' objective "to develop the ability to read German with understanding." At the same time the fundamentals of grammar are not neglected. This text is to be recommended to teachers with similar language aims.

PAUL G. KRAUSS

Ohio University,  
Athens, Ohio

VON GRUENINGEN, JOHN PAUL, *A Graded Reference Grammar for Students of German*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1938. Cloth. Price, \$1.75.

For many years there has been no German grammar on the American market to bridge the chasm between Curme's monumental work (much too expensive for the average teacher, much too bulky for rapid reference) and Thomas's textbook, now far behind the times. Professor von Gruening is to be congratulated upon the many excellencies of the present book, which has something of the merits of the pioneer.

The teaching problem raised by such a book is met by the preparation of the corresponding Workbooks, which will embrace reading matter and exercises. Thus the grammar itself can serve for several terms, as there is no reason why it needs to be marked up by the student, and on the other hand the grammatical material it contains is adequate for even a four-year course in college.

Another practical problem is solved by the "grading" of the grammatical material and the corresponding designation of the paragraphs by asterisks. Unstarred sections constitute

the first year's work in grammar, and so even this rather bulky volume can be used for beginning courses in German.

The entire text has been prepared with the most meticulous care, attention being paid to the spacing and arrangement of the pages, the practical disposition of the illustrative matter and the paradigms, the use or suggestion of mnemonic devices, cross-references from one section to the other, the employment of alternative designations (where they are in common use) for grammatical phenomena, and the preparation of a very full topical index which facilitates ready reference for both teacher and student. Probing almost at random, I note the excellent section on Etymology (cognate relations), clever teaching devices, the full list of German grammatical expressions; and I am glad to see that the author has retained the subjunctive system first introduced by the late lamented Eduard Prokosch, which in my opinion revolutionized the teaching of that difficult chapter.

It goes without saying that a pioneer book is almost certain to reveal some flaws upon closer scrutiny. I am myself not quite satisfied with the treatment of the Du-form, and think the treatment of the modals might have been improved. Quite seriously defective is the section on pronunciation, which should be revised before a new edition is printed. But as most of the teaching of pronunciation lies in the teacher's hands anyway, this defect is not practically serious, and the other blemishes I have observed do not detract from the many positive merits of the book. I am glad to give it a hearty recommendation.

BAYARD Q. MORGAN

Stanford University,  
Stanford, California

PUCKETT, HUGH, W. (ed.), *Contemporary German Prose (Advanced Readings in Literature, History, and Science)*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1938. Paper. Price, \$1.10.

These twelve selections of descriptive and expository prose by Uhlendahl, Stoessel, Carossa, Petersen, Lorenz, Sombart, Bahr, T. Mann, von Scholz, Bauer, Mayer, and Meyer are intended to fill a gap in the present available reading material in third-year college German that bridges the passage from the story to the essay, and to give progressive "training in the close reading of difficult prose."

Five selections pertain to belles-lettres, two to history and economics, two to fine arts, and three to natural sciences. In addition to giving much factual information, the selections present and also suggest many generalizations and theories concerning the genesis and development of certain phases of the subjects discussed. The editor has arranged the selections in the order of their difficulty, "so far as it was humanly possible."

The 250 and odd notes clear up allusions to literature, history, geography, science and other subjects, besides translating difficult expressions in an admirable manner. The editor did not deem it necessary to give many grammatical explanations, although some notes on the translations of adverbial particles and of uncommon uses of the cases would have been helpful.

The 2,150 common words printed in the *Minimum Standard German Vocabulary*, except when different meanings are given them, certain compounds, and cognates are omitted in the glossary containing about 2,000 words, which, moreover, the editor has regrettably added on the advice of the publishers. Many instructors prefer that college students learn to use a full-fledged dictionary.

Six of the selections were published in 1933 and 1934, and five others since 1921; one is undated. All make use of vigorous contemporary German, although there are occasional lumbering and involved sentences which college juniors will find somewhat difficult to comprehend quickly and fully. Even "the fittest who survive" will find some of the abstract terminology hard to translate, but not so hard as to understand the underlying trend of the thought.

The human interest and imaginative appeal of the first four or five selections will readily stimulate the interest of the reader, but the abstract and philosophical character of the rest may cause absent-mindedness and loss of interest. At this point the enthusiastic and understanding instructor will have to step in. Many books that are of vital interest to their authors and editors do not appeal strongly to the students, but the reviewer feels sure that Professor Puckett's book will be appreciated by both students and instructors if it is studied carefully and deliberately.

WILLIAM F. KAMMAN

*Carnegie Institute of Technology,  
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania*

LENZ, HAROLD F. H. AND NOCK, FRANCIS J., *Goethe's Urfaust*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1938. Price, \$1.00.

In this school edition of Goethe's *Urfaust* for third-year college students the original orthography and punctuation have been modernized and a German-English Vocabulary added. Those portions of the Completed *Faust*, Part I, that are necessary for the thread of the Gretchen tragedy are told at the proper places by Dr. Lenz in simple German prose. The introductory remarks on Goethe and the composition of *Faust*, as well as the footnotes explaining difficult words and passages are all in German, being in some cases adaptations from Witkowski's commentary.

The purpose of the book is to induce students, who have not the time or courage to read Goethe's complete drama, to read the *Urfaust* for the love tragedy, in the hope that they will thereby be enticed into reading the masterpiece later.

This special printing of the *Urfaust* should be a boon to teachers of Goethe's *Faust*, making it much easier for their classes to compare Goethe's youthful work with the finished product. It is always discouraging for students to have to pick out the parts of the *Urfaust* for themselves in the notes and appendices to Thomas's edition of *Faust*; and Witkowski's *Goethe's Faust* is somewhat cumbersome and not always available. The book would probably have been more generally useful if the Introduction and explanatory notes had been written in English.

JOHN A. HESS

*Ohio University,  
Athens, Ohio*

DODGE, ERNEST R. AND VIERECK, MARGARET H., *Lustige Stunden*. New York: American Book Company, 1938. Price, \$1.20.

The authors of this book are already favorably known to American teachers of German as purveyors of interesting reading material. In *Stimmen aus Deutschland* (Henry Holt and Co.) they offered entertaining, informative articles by contemporary Germans on German civilization, art, and industry. In *Etwas Neues* (American Book Co.), they brought unusual stories by living German writers.

*Lustige Stunden* is a collection of German anecdotes, humorous tales, and some poems by Wilhelm Busch, that are guaranteed to produce laughs (or at least smiles). They have already been tried out in the Horace Mann School for Boys.

This text is well edited. Footnotes translate difficult passages, the vocabulary is complete, and the Übungen provide enough questions and exercises for German conversation. The book was "planned for rapid extensive reading." This reviewer doubts whether American students will appreciate the German cartoons of the Verlag Ullstein, or be greatly interested in the "art work," which could have been omitted without loss to the value of the book.

JOHN A. HESS

*Ohio University,  
Athens, Ohio*

DAVIS, VON HARJE, AND ALLEN, PHILIP SCHUYLER, *Language, Literature and Life, German Book One*. Scott, Foresman and Company, 1938. Cloth, Illustrated. Price, \$1.76.

This attractively bound and copiously illustrated first-year book is a delight to the pupil. Two hundred and twenty-nine pictures chosen for their human interest have below them vivid statements bringing out the likenesses or differences between our country and Germany. In addition there are fifteen illustrated accounts in English on contributions made to life in the United States by German-Americans; regional differences in Germany; its history, geography, customs, and costumes; its foods; its toy-making, school-life, etc. Add to this the colored map, four sectional maps, several poems, songs and *Sprichwörter*, and the cultural phase so largely neglected in other texts is unusually well covered.

From the teacher's standpoint this book is excellent because of the carefully graded and well-planned exercises and fully explained grammatical principles which assume no previous knowledge of English grammar. The reading selections, varied from Münchhausen and Grimm to Goethe, Schiller and Thomas Mann, are based on a Minimum Standard Vocabulary. As new forms and grammatical principles and vocabulary are presented in each unit, opportunity is given for reworking the material in speaking and writing and review. The book should do much towards silencing language critics who maintain that language teaching is too largely grammar which the pupil cannot use and promptly forgets.

LYDIA L. MEYER

*High School,  
West Allis, Wisconsin*

BRUNS, FRIEDRICH, *Die Lese der deutschen Lyrik von Klopstock bis Rilke*. New York: F. S. Crofts, 1938. Cloth. Price, \$2.25.

In a number of previous publications, such as *Modern Thought in the German Lyric Poetry from Goethe to Dehmel*, *A Book of German Lyrics*, *Auge und Ohr in Goethes Lyrik*, *Goethes Gedichte*, in German and English, edited for the Goethe Society in America, Bruns has given evidence of his intimate knowledge and fine appreciation of modern German poetry. The present anthology has been in the making for some twenty-five years. It is dedicated to Professor Bruns' students, who unknowingly have contributed much to this unique textbook. The editor states in the Preface that each age will compile its own anthology. We might go even further and say that each generation will make its own selection. A brief comparison with the only other textbook of recent date comparable in size, scope and purpose: *German Lyrics and Ballads from Klopstock to Modern Times* by Vos and Barba (1925) may illustrate this statement. Both anthologies have 356 pages of text, but the space and number of poems accorded to the individual poets varies considerably. Minor poets who were admired in their time or who became famous only through a few *Lieder* have been excluded by Bruns. Thus the following names still represented in the older anthology are not found in this one: Herder, Tieck, Schenkendorf, Schwab, Kerner, Müller, Hoffmann von Fallersleben, Hauff, Grün, Fontane and Scheffel. For the modern period after Liliencron only poems by Dehmel, Nietzsche, Hofmannsthal, George and Rilke have been included, with three poems by Lulu von Strauss und Torney added as an epilogue. This limitation is pedagogically sound because it forestalls confusion and allows more adequate presentation of the outstanding poets. The shifting emphasis is especially apparent in the case of Hölderlin and Rilke, who are accorded five times as much space as in the older book; likewise three times as many pages are devoted to Dehmel and George, and more than twice as many to Goethe, Mörike, Keller and Platen. This is somewhat surprising in the case of Keller and Platen, who hardly warrant as detailed a presentation as Mörike and Eichendorff, respectively. A changing evaluation is noticeable even within different phases and periods of the same poet. Schiller's philosophical poems receive more attention than his purely narrative poetry, while his lyrical poetry is not represented.



His "Lied an die Freude" is merely mentioned in the Preface. We become acquainted not only with the well known romantic songs of Brentano and Heine, but also with the stirring religious struggles of these poets. Geibel is valued as a poet of patriotism.

The selection of Goethe's poetry is excellent. It follows rather closely the editor's previous choice for the Goethe Society. Some famous songs found there are now omitted, evidently because they are part of a drama. Truly representative are also the poems by George, which were seldom available for anthologies during the poet's lifetime. In the inclusive presentation of Mörike's poetry we miss the eminently characteristic: "An einem Wintermorgen" and the two poems that reveal the poet's profoundly religious nature: "An die Geliebte" and "Neue Liebe." In the long list of Hölderlin's poems some will look in vain for his beautiful ode to Germany: "O heilig Herz der Völker, o Vaterland!" others will ask why none of Rilke's "Tiergedichte" have been included. In spite of a few omissions of this type which are unavoidable in such a wealth of poetry, we may safely maintain that it would be difficult to find, even in Germany, another harvest of German lyrics that has been as carefully gathered as this one.

A succinct Introduction of more than fifty pages gives "a survey of general aspects and movements and introduces the student to a particular poet and his work as represented in this anthology." A new and most welcome feature is the connected discussion on "German Lyric Poetry in Music." The Notes confine themselves to allusions that are not clear and a few explanations of linguistic difficulties and metrical patterns. The teacher and graduate student will find the Bibliography extremely helpful. Here the editor has compiled very carefully information on the best editions, or editions with the best introductions, on the most valuable essays and monographs.

*Die Lese der deutschen Lyrik* will undoubtedly be for many years to come the leading textbook for the advanced student of German lyrics.

ERICH HOFACKER

Washington University,  
St. Louis, Missouri

CLOSS, AUGUST, *The Genius of the German Lyric. An Historic Survey of its Formal and Metaphysical Values*. London: Allen and Unwin, 1938. Illustrated. Price, 18s.

Professor Closs, who teaches at the University of Bristol, England, offers us the first comprehensive study of the German lyric in its historic perspective to be published in any language. The following allotment of his space (not the author's wording) gives an idea of the layout of the book. Minnesong and Mastersong, 60 pp.; Folksong, 20; To Klopstock, 108; To Romanticism, 70; Nineteenth century to Arno Holz, 100; To the present day, 60. There is a useful bibliography, 17 pp., and a complete index.

The author has worked independently, and his judgments are his own, so that the book is anything but a rehash of traditional opinion. It is a new and important contribution to the literature of its field, and should be in every college library. It might also serve as textbook in courses on German poetry, or as correlative reading in survey courses.

No two persons would write an identical book on such a topic as this, and it goes almost without saying that I have certain quarrels with the author. Thus I feel that he somewhat undervalues Walther von der Vogelweide and Heinrich Heine, and that some of the space devoted to Opitz and the baroque lyric might have been better employed.

I found a few misprints and some indications that Dr. Closs is not entirely at home in our English idiom. But these are trifling matters, which do not invalidate the solid merits of the book.

BAYARD QUINCY MORGAN

Stanford University,  
Stanford, California



LECOMPTÉ, IRVILLE C. AND SUNDEEN, MYRTLE V., *Unified French Course, An Integrated Course for Beginners*. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937. Cloth. Illustrated. Price, \$1.96.

As a result of the survey of modern language instruction made by the American and Canadian Committees the omnibus type of elementary language text has become increasingly popular. The Lecompte-Sundeen grammar, designed to meet the needs of the beginning course as envisaged by the survey, aims to present both a comprehensive and a flexible text. It therefore proceeds on the basis of a maximum, rather than a minimum program, yet makes ample provision for adjustment to both upper and lower quartiles. Further, the content of the book may be considered either as 150 chapters or, by grouping, may be regarded in terms of units. By such means the authors hope to make the work suitable to both high-school and college classes.

The proving ground of any text is the classroom. This is particularly true for a text of elementary level, and increasingly so for one which plans to be adaptable to many different groups. However, in so far as may be determined from careful examination, one need not hesitate to recommend the Lecompte-Sundeen text for trial. It embodies the best pedagogical techniques. The cultural material and the photographs (excepting the reproduction of Mignard's portrait of Molière, p. 194) are decidedly above average. There is ample provision for phonetic drill, and for study of English cognates, as well as grammar drill, idiom study, and various other types of practice common to early texts. The entire book shows every evidence of careful workmanship, and represents a sincere effort on the part of both the publisher and the authors.

I. W. BROCK

*Emory University, Georgia*

BOURDET, EDOUARD, *Vient de Parattre*, Edited by Hélène Cattànès. New York: The Cordon Company, 1938. Cloth. Price, \$1.30.

Aside from the fact that the present text makes available for American students one of the very popular contemporary plays, with all the advantages accruing from the use of natural, everyday spoken French, and from the lively interest which a good drama may arouse, one may appraise Professor Cattànès' volume from the standpoint of pedagogic usefulness. On this score, one may call attention to the following: (1) Explanatory notes to the text are given at the bottom of the page to which they refer, and are usually in French, though highly idiomatic expressions are rendered into English; (2) The grammatical notes are not matter-of-fact statements, but consist of a number of examples of a particular usage, and are aimed to stimulate the student's observation; (3) The exercises are in French and should be quite valuable for conversational practice, or for a modified form of *explication de textes*. All told, it seems that the great merit of the text is the variety of teaching procedures which it invites.

I. W. BROCK

*Emory University, Georgia*

FORD, H. E., AND HICKS, R. K., *An Alternative French Reader*, with exercises and vocabulary. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1938. Cloth. Price, \$1.28.

This reader has brought to students a collection of stories which is rather unusual, some historical incidents, humorous ones, sea stories, a prison escape, an airplane thriller, as well as selections from Hugo, Balzac, and Coppée. The material is arranged for the Direct Reading Method; a basic vocabulary of about five hundred words is used plus some "inevitables," many cognates, and the commoner idioms.

The illustrations for eleven of the twelve stories point out, in most cases, the highlight of the narrative.

Although the proportion of exercises to reading matter may seem too great (about 100

pages of exercises to 200 of reading), yet careful scrutiny will show that this is not the case. For each story or division of a longer story there are four types of exercises. (A) Word recognition, perhaps six or seven different exercises. To us the words seem too simple, but experience has shown that the English vocabulary of the ordinary high school pupil is strangely limited. Unless it is called to his attention, little use is made of his knowledge of Latin or a modern foreign language to help him understand the derivation or meaning of words. (B) Questions in French on the text which may be used as fore-questions to break down translation habits, for testing or as an aid in oral composition. (C) Completion sentences for oral work or checking comprehension. (D) Supplementary exercises—formation of sentences and varied types of drill on grammatical constructions. These several exercises allow different types of drill, and give opportunity for individual differences in minimum and maximum assignments.

The vocabulary has somewhat the same arrangement found in the Oxford Rapid Reading Texts—special words for each story are placed at the beginning of that story. The vocabulary at the end of the book is divided into two parts, one at the top and the other at the bottom of the page. The primary vocabulary is made up of the basic vocabulary and derivative of these basic words, while the secondary one is made up of about 350 "inevitables" and cognates resembling English words.

There is no statement as to the semester in which these stories are to be read. The authors say in the introduction that "the first objective is the earliest possible attainment of power and a sense of pleasure in the mind of the beginner" together with some conception of language as a living organism. If the book is not introduced too early, the material and method of handling will make it a worth-while addition to the many readers already on the market.

MARY Z. ROWLAND

Catonsville High School,  
Catonsville, Maryland

BERNARD, TRISTAN, *Visites Nocturnes*, Edited by A. G. Bovée, series editor, E. A. Méras. New York: Harper's, 1938.

This sentimental-whimsical-satirical detective story (which reads like the French version of some joint effort of P. G. Wodehouse and Agatha Christie) should delight students capable of catching its verbal nuances and of following over a period of time (as must be done in class) the intricacies of its plot. Tristan Bernard may not be the "literary genius" M. Bovée thinks him, but it probably does the student no harm to be told so (no more harm, certainly, than to be warned ominously in the first line of the Preface that "Change is a law of life"). The bibliographical note gives in great detail a list of Bernard's works, but withholds all information concerning their nature. What good it may do a student to read that Bernard has also written *la Mariée du Touring-Club* and *les Phares Soubigou*, if he has no idea what either is about, one cannot say.

*Visites nocturnes*, issued in French in 1934, compares favorably with its English and American counterparts of pre-*Thin Man* days. Recently we who gave Gaboriau and other French authors the detective story in the works of Poe have *repris notre bien* in the high-pressure crime novels of Stout, Hammett, Kurt Steel *et al.* That the *genre* as it survives in France is still practised with considerable skill and talent is proved by the oblique melodrama under consideration. From its *in medias res* beginning through its quotations from the diaries of certain characters (*à la* André Gide) to its slick-paper ending it is a series of familiar but gracefully executed *trucs*. Whatever else may be true of him, Bernard is not one to neglect his *métier*.

M. Bovée has done the usual word-deletion and word-frequency counting. All words lying beyond Van der Beke 3069 are numbered and given (in either English or French) at the foot of the page. This is surely a superior practice to that found in some recent texts wherein the words are supplied in parentheses in the middle of the line of text. Some exception may be taken to the list of idioms at the beginning of each chapter on the grounds that any student able to reach page 105 without getting lost hardly needs to be told at that point that "tout

à coup" means "suddenly," or "tous deux," "both." The very last list (p. 148) begins with "il venait de," an expression anybody able to read the first ten pages of the story would probably know. The idiom lists might have been equally useful and less distracting if placed among the exercises.

The 141 pages of exercises (excessive?) follow the chapters and include true-false statements in French, blanks to fill in, definitions and translations to be given, themes, etc. Certain Simon-Binet-looking exercises (*Après . . . conversation . . . Robert . . . agité, "A minuit, être . . . retard envoyer, etc.)* may puzzle and interest the student. Other sentences seem less worth their weight in ink: *On peut aller de Paris à Rouen en — ou par le —.* The vocabulary has been set up in a good, clear type (two faces) with excellent spacing. Miss Hogeboom's incidental drawings are rather *roman feuilleton* in appearance and have been done (whether purposely or not it is impossible to say) in a style dating from the Horatio Alger period.

BRUCE A. MORRISSETTE

Washington University,  
Saint Louis, Missouri

KÄSTNER, ERICH, *Emil und die drei Zwillinge*. Edited by Lilian L. Stroebe and Gabriele Humbert Parker. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1938. Cloth. Illustrated. Price, 96 cents.

Miss Stroebe has again been successful in finding choice elementary reading matter and again it is the name of Erich Kästner which comes to the foreground. *Emil und die drei Zwillinge* forms the exciting continuation of *Emil und die Detektive*, a story which undoubtedly is known in almost every classroom throughout the country, where German is taught. We meet again our old friends: Emil, the 'Professor,' Gustav, Pony Hütchen, little Dienstag, the Lift Boy from the Hotel Kreid, the Grossmutter, Emil's mother, and police sergeant Jeschke who is going to marry her. The youngsters are all somewhat older but their enthusiasm and their spirit of enterprise have not been affected in the least. The setting for their adventures is, this time, not Berlin but the Baltic, where Emil has been invited to spend his summer vacation as the guest of the Professor. It is here that he meets the *drei Zwillinge* who are the cause of all the adventures.

Stimulating exercises and questions with the purpose of fixing the vocabulary and of encouraging oral and written expression follow the text. The vocabulary is quite complete, even to the inclusion of biographical, literary, geographical, topographical, and other necessary information.

The publishers have come forth with a new feature: the text is printed in an extremely clear Roman type (Cochin); smaller Roman type is used in the exercises, questions, and in the vocabulary. The format of the book is slightly larger than that of *Emil und die Detektive*. All in all, this new text is very attractive in appearance. Typographical errors in the text were found on page 12, lines 12 and 16: *plötz ich* instead of *plötzlich*, *vie eicht* in place of *vielleicht*.

The story can be read at the same early stage as *Emil und die Detektive*.

EUGEN HARTMUTH MUELLER

Ohio University,  
Athens, Ohio

---

## • Books Received •

---

### FRENCH

- Cru, Albert L., *Le Français Expliqué*. New York: Silver Burdett Company. Price, \$1.16.  
Evans, W. Hugo, and Jones, J. D. (eds.), *Prose and Verse Selections from Sixteenth-Century French Authors*. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1938. Price, \$1.65.  
Holmes, Urban T., Jr., and Schutz, Alexander H., *A History of the French Language*. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Incorporated, 1938. Price, \$2.50.  
Hooker, Kenneth Ward, *The Fortunes of Victor Hugo in England*. New York (Morningside Heights): Columbia University Press, 1938. Price, \$2.75.  
Spink, J. E., and Millis, V., *Totor et Tristan, deux soldats de bois*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1938. Price, \$1.12.

### GERMAN

- Geissler, Horst Wolfram, *Der liebe Augustin* (ed. by George M. Priest). New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1938. Price, \$1.40.  
Goedsche, C. R., *Wie geht's?* New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1938. Price, \$1.40.  
Lange, V., and Boeschstein, H., *Kulturkritik und Literaturbetrachtung in Amerika*. Breslau: Priebatsch, 1938. Price, 3 Marks.

### SCANDINAVIAN

- Bach, Giovanni, *The History of Scandinavian Literatures*, (ed. by Frederika Blankner). New York: Dial Press, Incorporated, 1938. Price, \$4.00.

### SPANISH

- Adams, N. B., and Place, Edwin B., *Lectures Modernas: A Beginning Reader in Spanish*. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1938. Price, \$1.20.